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RECONVERSION IN NEW ENGLAND

Manufacturing employment, September 1939–March 1946

Reconversion gains in manufacturing employment have been firmer in the New England States than in the Nation generally. The immediate impact of cut-backs in New England, where manufacturing employment had increased less than the national average during the war, was less sharp than in most regions of the country. The wartime rise in employment in New England resulted largely from expansion of production in existing industrial plants. Peak employment in June 1943 was over 50 percent above the September 1939 level. By the end of March 1946, total manufacturing employment appeared to be well stabilized on a considerably higher level of activity than before the war. Page 1.

Wage and work experience of skilled cotton-textile workers

As part of the Bureau's work and wage experience studies of war workers, a selected group of New England textile workers were surveyed to present the reconversion experience of workers in civilian-type industries in contrast to that of workers in war plants. In view of job opportunities affording higher wages during the war, what factors induced workers to stay in essential industries such as textiles? Postwar job security was only one factor. How the New England textile workers have fared during the reconversion period, in terms of wartime and prewar earnings and the experience of war workers, is examined in the article beginning on page 8.

Connecticut program for veterans' readjustment and reemployment

This program, initiated in August 1943, is administered by the Connecticut Veterans Reemployment and Advisory Commission created by the State Legislature in 1945. Primarily, the object of the program is to give World War II veterans opportunities to acquire useful skills, to find suitable jobs, and to assist in their readjustment to community life.

An indication of the success of this program is that by May 31, 1946, veterans advisory committees were functioning in 160 of the 169 towns in the State, and that more than 1,000 veterans visit the centers daily for information and guidance. The development of the plan and its organization and operations are discussed in an article on page 16.

Massachusetts Fair Employment Practice Act of 1946

Massachusetts is the third State to adopt a fair employment practice law. In the legislation, provision was also made for the appointment of a Fair Employment Practice Commission by the Governor. The three-member body is to formulate policy for the prevention of discrimination in employment. Page 20.

Recent developments in Rhode Island cash sickness benefits

Rhode Island has recently amended its Cash Sickness Compensation Act, which provides illness benefits for the workers included under unemployment compensation. The amendments, effective July 1, 1946, are designed to protect the solvency of the sickness fund, which declined by 1.3 million dollars from March 1944 to March 1946. Measures adopted are (1) diversion of the entire pay-roll tax contributed by workers (heretofore shared with the unemployment fund) to the sickness fund; and (2) stricter provisions for cases dealing with pregnancy, retired workers, and workmen's compensation. In view of the numerous legislative proposals for health insurance in recent years, the 3 years' experience of Rhode Island in the payment of cash sickness benefits is of paramount importance. Page 21.

WAGES AND LABOR CONDITIONS

Wartime wages, income, and wage regulation in agriculture

Unprecedented gains were made in farm wages during the war period. The main causes were labor shortages and rising farm incomes and prices. The advances in farm wages between the two World Wars lagged behind those of nonfarm wages and income. Between January 1940 and January 1946, the general cash farm wage rate for the Nation as a whole rose 192 percent, from $29.40 to $85.90 per month. The increase in the purchasing power of wages was made substantially less by the rise in prices. The West North Central, West South Central, and Pacific regions realized the greatest gains. The smallest increase occurred in New England. Regional differences in wage rates increased during the war. Wages rose from 16.6 percent of all production expenses in 1935–39 to 19.4 percent in 1944, the latter percentage being approximately the same as in the parity base period of 1910–14. Cash wages increased at a more rapid rate than the value of perquisites, continuing the prewar trend of declining importance of noncash wages. Page 36.

Wages of office workers in metalworking industries, January 1945

Nearly a tenth of the country's manufacturing employees are office or clerical workers; a third of these are employed in metalworking industries. Average hourly earnings of office workers in metalworking industries were about one-fifth higher than in department stores but showed no consistent variation from earnings of employees in electric light and power companies. General clerks and clerk-typists received an average of 65 cents an hour, and class A stenographers 81 cents an hour. Earnings on the Pacific Coast were distinctly higher—about 15 percent on the average—than in any other region. Paid vacations were provided for office workers in 6 out of 7 metalworking establishments studied. Page 54.

Accident prevention in breweries

Analysis of 4,276 work accidents involving injuries to brewery employees indicates that substantial improvement in the brewing industry's injury record can be achieved by eliminating poor housekeeping conditions, such as slippery floors and tripping hazards; by providing guards on all machines and conveyors; and by instituting effective safety inspection procedures for the detection of defective materials and equipment. Employees should also be given more thorough training in the safe methods of lifting and piling heavy materials. Page 72.

Labor conditions in Belgium, 1945 and early 1946

The postwar rehabilitation of Belgium progressed relatively quickly during 1945 and early 1946. The manpower shortage was partially relieved by the temporary use of prisoners-of-war and the retraining of Belgian workers, and industrial production revived to from 50 to 120 percent of 1936–38 levels. Industrial relations benefited from the reestablishment of the joint industrial councils. Trade-union membership was growing and labor was represented on some 20 Government commissions. Until the spring of 1946, price rises were met by moderate wage increases and the broadening of the social security system. Page 26.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]

[Available in reprint form]

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945 May	1939: Average for year
		May	April	March		
Employment and unemployment						
Civilian labor force (BC): Total	Thousands	57,630	56,900	55,660	[2] 52,030	[2] 54,230
Male	do	40,950	40,310	39,370	[2] 33,790	[2] 40,950
Female	do	16,680	16,590	16,290	[2] 18,240	[2] 13,280
Employed [4]	do	55,320	54,550	52,950	[2] 51,300	[2] 46,930
Male	do	39,060	38,420	37,170	[2] 33,360	[2] 35,600
Female	do	16,260	16,130	15,780	[2] 17,940	[2] 11,330
Nonagricultural	do	46,440	46,360	45,370	[2] 43,350	[2] 37,430
Agricultural	do	8,880	8,190	7,580	[2] 7,950	[2] 9,500
Unemployed	do	2,310	2,350	2,710	[2] 730	[2] 7,300
Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments: Total [4]	do	37,435	36,928	36,281	37,679	30,353
Manufacturing	do	12,645	12,551	12,014	14,811	10,078
Mining	do	763	505	801	728	845
Construction [5]	do	1,755	1,549	1,345	798	1,753
Transportation and public utilities	do	3,885	3,922	3,929	3,802	2,912
Trade	do	7,692	7,759	7,622	7,021	6,618
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	do	5,147	5,140	5,076	4,513	4,160
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	do	5,548	5,502	5,494	6,006	3,988
Military personnel	do	3,853	4,360	4,963	12,218	362
Production-worker employment:						
Manufacturing	do	11,227	11,153	10,643	13,090	8,192
Bituminous-coal mining	do	303	74.5	342	327	371
Class I steam railroads, including salaried employees (ICC)	do	1,307	1,347	1,367	1,427	988
Hired farm workers (BAE)	do	1,975	1,652	1,489	1,864	[6] 2,645
Hours and earnings						
Average weekly hours:						
Manufacturing	Hours		40.6	40.8	[7] 45.1	37.7
Bituminous-coal mining	do		27.0	45.9	[7] 36.8	27.1
Retail trade	do		40.3	40.5	[7] 39.9	43.0
Building construction (private)	do	37.4	38.2	37.5	39.3	32.6
Average weekly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$42.92	$42.16	[7] $47.12	$23.86
Bituminous-coal mining			$30.76	$58.30	[7] $43.45	$23.88
Retail trade			$31.40	$31.12	[7] $27.69	$21.17
Building construction (private)		$53.75	$54.29	$52.87	$53.64	$30.39
Average hourly earnings:						
Manufacturing			$1.058	$1.034	[7] $1.044	$0.633
Bituminous-coal mining			$1.239	$1.274	[7] $1.184	$0.886
Retail trade			$0.854	$0.841	[7] $0.763	$0.536
Building construction (private)		$1.438	$1.423	$1.411	$1.366	$0.933
Average straight-time hourly earnings in manufacturing, using—						
Current employment by industry			$1.023	$0.998	[7] $0.971	$0.622
Employment by industry as of January 1941			$1.027	$1.007	[7] $0.925	$0.640
Quarterly farm wage rate, per day without board (BAE)			$4.36		[7] $4.12	[7] $1.53
Industrial injuries and labor turn-over						
Industrial injuries in manufacturing per million man-hours worked				17.6	[8] 17.0	15.4
Labor turn-over per 100 employees in manufacturing:						
Total separations		6.2	6.3	6.6	7.0	[9] 3.5
Quits		4.1	1.3	4.2	4.8	[9] 0.7
Lay-offs		1.5	4.4	1.8	1.2	[9] 2.7
Total accessions		5.9	6.7	7.1	5.0	[9] 3.3
Labor-management disputes						
Work stoppages beginning in month:						
Number		360	465	385	433	218
Number of workers involved	Thousands	560	575	130	333	98
All work stoppages during month:						
Number of man-days idle	do	11,500	15,500	14,000	2,219	1,484
Man-days idle as percent of available working time		1.81	2.49	2.42	0.29	0.28

See footnotes at end of table.

Current Statistics of Labor Interest in Selected Periods [1]—Continued

Item	Unit or base period	1946			1945 May	1939: Average for year
		May	April	March		
Prices						
Consumers' price index (moderate income families in large cities):						
All items	1935–39=100	131.5	130.9	130.2	128.1	99.4
Food	1935–39=100	142.6	141.7	140.1	138.8	95.2
Clothing	1935–39=100	155.4	154.3	153.1	144.6	100.5
Rent	1935–39=100			108.4		105.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	1935–39=100	110.3	110.4	110.5	110.0	99.0
Housefurnishings	1935–39=100	152.4	151.3	150.2	145.4	101.3
Miscellaneous	1935–39=100	126.3	126.0	125.9	123.9	100.7
Retail food price index (large cities): All foods	1935–39=100	142.6	141.7	140.1	138.8	95.2
Cereals and bakery products	1935–39=100	115.2	113.3	110.3	109.0	94.5
Meats	1935–39=100	133.4	132.8	131.3	131.6	96.6
Dairy products	1935–39=100	138.6	137.4	137.0	133.5	95.9
Eggs	1935–39=100	140.3	137.7	139.0	140.7	91.0
Fruits and vegetables	1935–39=100	185.7	185.9	183.4	182.5	94.5
Beverages	1935–39=100	125.4	125.1	124.9	124.6	95.5
Fats and oils	1935–39=100	126.1	126.1	125.9	123.9	87.7
Sugar and sweets	1935–39=100	135.9	135.3	132.4	126.5	100.6
Wholesale price index: All commodities	1926=100	111.0	110.2	108.9	106.0	77.1
All commodities other than farm products	1926=100	105.1	104.5	103.4	100.6	79.5
All commodities other than farm products and foods	1926=100	103.9	103.3	102.2	99.4	81.3
Farm products	1926=100	137.5	135.4	133.4	129.9	65.3
Foods	1926=100	111.5	110.8	109.4	107.0	70.4
National income and expenditures						
National income payments (BFDC)	Millions	$12,737	$12,960	$13,199	$12,835	[6] $5,520
Consumer expenditures for goods and services (BFDC)	do			[9] $27,897	[9] $24,652	[9] $14,256
Retail sales (BFDC)	do	$7,853	$7,707	$7,473	$6,154	[6] $3,634
Production						
Industrial production index, unadjusted (FR): Total	1935–39=100	160	163	164	225	100
Manufactures	1935–39=100	167	174	170	240	109
Minerals	1935–39=100	116	99	131	141	106
Bituminous coal (BM)	Thousands of short tons	20,420	3,210	56,540	49,483	[6] 23,301
Car-loadings index, unadjusted (FR)	1935–39=100	107	107	132	142	101
Electric energy (FPC): Total	Millions of kw.-hr.	21,281	21,265	21,675	23,686	([10])
Utilities (production for public use)	do	17,673	17,477	17,800	19,409	10,145
Industrial establishments	do	3,608	3,788	3,875	4,277	([10])
Construction						
Construction expenditures	Millions	$982	$850	$728	$463	[6] $595
Value of urban building construction started	do	$362	$412	$741	$135	([10])
New nonfarm family dwelling units		71,800	77,500	82,900	18,700	[6] 53,300

[1] Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics unless otherwise indicated. Abbreviations used: BC (Bureau o the Census); ICC (Interstate Commerce Commission); BAE (Bureau of Agricultural Economics); BFDC (Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce); FR (Federal Reserve); BM (Bureau of Mines); FPC (Federal Power Commission). Most of the current figures are preliminary.

[2] Not comparable with March, April, and May 1946 figures because of a change adopted by the Bureau of the Census in July 1945 in sampling methods. (See Monthly Report on the Labor Force, September 1945.) Estimates for months prior to July 1945 are being revised.

[3] 10-month average—March to December 1940. (See footnote 2.)

[4] Excludes employees on public emergency work, these being included in unemployed civilian labor force. Civilian employment in nonagricultural establishments differs from employment in civilian labor force mainly because of the inclusion in the latter of such groups as self-employed and domestic and casual workers.

[5] Includes workers employed by construction contractors and Federal force-account workers (nonmaintenance construction workers employed directly by the Federal Government). Other force-account nonmaintenance construction employment is included under manufacturing and other groups.

[6] May.

[7] April.

[8] March.

[9] First quarter.

[10] Not available.

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RECONVERSION IN NEW ENGLAND

EDITOR'S NOTE.—*Workers in New England during the reconversion period have enjoyed certain advantages which are described in five articles comprising this section. The articles are summary in scope and are not intended to give a comprehensive survey of general labor conditions in the region. They do show facts regarding employment in manufacturing industries from the time that war started in Europe through March 1946; the war and postwar wage and work experience of a selected group of textile workers; and information on social and economic gains in three of the six States making up New England.*

Manufacturing Employment, September 1939–March 1946[1]

RECONVERSION gains in manufacturing employment have been firmer in the New England States than in the Nation generally. The immediate impact of cut-backs in New England, where manufacturing employment had increased less than the national average during the war, was less sharp than in most regions of the country. By March 1946 manufacturing employment had expanded in contrast to a further small decline in the national totals.

Comparatively few new Government-owned facilities were placed in New England, accounting in part for the smaller relative wartime gains and the relatively moderate curtailment at the end of the war. The substantial wartime rise in employment that did occur resulted largely from the expansion of production in existing industrial plants. As elsewhere, the major gains occurred in the region's heavy goods industries rather than in the light industries which had employed two-thirds of the region's factory workers before the war. At the peak in

[1] Prepared under the direction of Wendell D. Macdonald, Director of the Boston Regional Office of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The detailed estimates of factory employment, by State and industry, are available for the first time on a monthly basis as part of the Bureau's expanded program in the field of employment statistics. In the large industrial States of New England, cooperative arrangements are in effect with the State Departments of Labor in the collection of employment data. Summary reports of the Bureau of Employment Security and of the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board and State Unemployment Compensation agency are utilized for estimating purposes. The estimates cover all production and nonproduction workers in private manufacturing establishments. Employment in manufacturing activities such as Government arsenals and shipyards are included in the employment figures for public employment, published separately. Comparable employment series for nonmanufacturing industries are in the process of preparation and will be published later in 1946.

June 1943, with total employment over 50 percent above the September 1939 level, the durable goods group employed 963,100 as against 405,500 in September 1939, and the nondurable goods group employed 821,000 compared with the prewar figure of 772,300.

In the final years of the war, manufacturing employment in the New England States declined from the 1,784,100 peak to 1,473,300 in August 1945—a drop of 18 percent, almost identical with the trend of manufacturing employment for the country as a whole. The decline of 200,000 in the durable goods industries and about 100,000 in the nondurable goods industries reflected primarily reduced munitions requirements, shortages of materials for civilian goods, and the continued tightening of the labor market as military inductions continued. As elsewhere, the labor supply was not sufficient to meet all civilian demands. The largest reductions up to the war's end occurred in the metalworking industries, in other war industries such as chemicals, and in textiles. In all other industries, the effect of growing labor shortages resulted in a whittling down of the early wartime gains in factory employment. The heavy industries remained substantially above prewar levels, while the light industries experienced a net decline. At the end of the war in August 1945, manufacturing employment was still one-quarter above the level of September 1939, with total factory employment almost evenly divided between the durable and nondurable goods industries.

Within 1 month following the end of the war, virtually the full impact of war-contract terminations had been felt in the New England States. The loss in employment during the first month approximated 120,000, and was confined almost exclusively to the metalworking industries. From October forward, reconversion in the metalworking industries and expansion of civilian output generally offset further losses in war production establishments. In contrast to the effect of cut-backs in the initial month, the decline in the heavy industries hardly exceeded 34,000 (partly because of labor-management disputes) in the following 6 months, while employment in the light industries was rising by more than 75,000.

During the reconversion period, employment tended to increase in most major industry groups. By March 1946, factory employment was higher than in October in every major group (as shown in the table) except transportation equipment, nonferrous metal products, electrical machinery, other machinery, and food and kindred products. In these industries which showed decreases, the declines were relatively small except in electrical machinery, where labor-management disputes accounted largely for a reduction of over 36,000. With virtually uninterrupted monthly gains in the nondurable goods industries, and well-sustained levels of employment in the major heavy industries, including the nonelectrical machinery and iron and steel industries, it appeared by the end of March 1946 that total manufacturing employment was well stabilized on a considerably higher level of activity than before the war.

The wartime expansion of manufacturing employment varied widely from State to State in the New England region, from a maximum rise of only 16 percent in New Hampshire to a maximum rise of 72 percent in Connecticut. The over-all percentage gains in the various States were determined in part by the prewar industrial composition of

employment. Maine and Massachusetts, for example, which showed the largest gains in the predominantly war industries, with respective gains of over 200 and 150 percent in the durable goods industries, had increases in total manufacturing employment of roughly 50 percent from September 1939 to the war peak. Prior to the war the nondurable goods industries constituted about three-fourths of factory employment in Maine and Massachusetts (in contrast to less than half in Connecticut), and these industries showed little if any gains during the war period because of the need for workers and higher wages in the war-expanding industries.

Factory Employment by States

Massachusetts.—The leading industrial State in the region, Massachusetts, expanded factory employment from 563,600 in September 1939 to 842,800 in mid-1943, an increase of about 280,000 jobs. Virtually all of the increase was accounted for by expansion of production in the war industries—in heavy goods industries which before the war employed less than 155,000 workers. Massachusetts' electrical and other machinery establishments increased from a total of about 65,000 to almost 200,000 at the war peak. The transportation equipment industries increased from about 10,000 to over 78,000; the iron and steel industries from 39,000 to 74,000. Altogether the nondurable goods groups employing 409,200 in September 1939, showed a gain of less than 40,000 at the peak.

During the period of general decline in employment from mid-1943 to the end of the war, Massachusetts experienced somewhat lesser declines in factory employment than the other New England States, except New Hampshire and Vermont, which had not had comparable expansion in war production. Both the nondurable and durable goods industries suffered reduced employment in this period of growing labor shortages. Following a cut of almost 60,000 in the first month after the end of the war, employment held relatively firm through the first quarter of 1946, despite the incidence of labor-management disputes in the State, with the nondurable goods industries moving toward record levels of employment. Of the New England States, only Vermont showed a higher percentage increase over 1939 levels than did Massachusetts with its gain of 22 percent.

Connecticut.—The second largest industrial State in the region, Connecticut, experienced the largest relative increase in manufacturing employment to mid-1943, a greater than average contraction in the last 2 years of the war, and the sharpest curtailment in September 1945. The largest increase in employment among Connecticut industries during the war occurred in the manufacture of transportation equipment (including aircraft). By March 1943 there were 76,900 workers in this industry as against about 1,000 in September 1939. In August 1945, employment in the transportation equipment industries had dropped to 54,000 and in the following month dropped still lower to 33,000 workers. Both the electrical machinery and other machinery groups likewise expanded enormously to meet war production demands. Electrical machinery expanded from 22,000 at the outbreak of the war to 38,700 in March 1943, while nonelectrical machinery more than doubled from 40,000 to 89,200 workers over the

same period. Employment in iron and steel expanded from 48,000 to 90,000 employees; and the chemicals industry, the other major war industry in the State, rose from 7,600 to 29,000. Thus these five industry groups, which accounted for about 120,000 jobs in 1939, employed about 325,000 workers at the height of war activity—virtually the entire wartime employment gain of the State. The nondurable goods industries in the meantime had increased from 131,700 to only 136,300, and in the final years of the war lost 20 percent of their labor force despite the even larger reduction in the State's war industries during the same period.

Reflecting widespread industrial disputes, total manufacturing employment in Connecticut has been at a standstill since September 1945—the only New England State not to show any net gain during the 6-month period ended March 1946, despite steady and substantial gains in the nondurable goods group. With employment concentrated more heavily in the durable goods field than in any other State in the region, work stoppages involved well over 40,000 workers in both February and March and have resulted in heavy goods employment remaining relatively stable since VJ-day. After disputes are settled, however, total employment in durable goods may be expected to rise to a level 100,000 above prewar levels or 50,000 above the present totals.

Rhode Island.—Third in rank of employment, Rhode Island experienced only moderate over-all gains in manufacturing employment during the war, chiefly concentrated in its transportation equipment and machinery industries. The early wartime gains in these industries were more largely liquidated in the curtailment of production prior to the end of the war than in any other State in the region. Because of the competition for labor in the early phases of war production, the nondurable industries in the State experienced little expansion from 1939 to 1943 and suffered marked losses in workers to the end of the war. Total manufacturing employment in the State, in fact, was lower by August 1945 than at the beginning of the war in Europe. Since VJ-day, employment in the durable goods industries has been well sustained at war-end levels (about 10,000 above September 1939), except for erratic movements at the end of 1945 because of labor-management disputes in the electrical machinery industry. In the nondurable goods industries, employment has steadily increased in the 6 months to March 1946 to near record levels.

Maine.—The 50,000 increase in manufacturing employment from the fall of 1939 to mid-1943 resulted almost exclusively from the wartime needs for ships and lumber. The shipyards along the Maine coasts expanded employment from about 3,400 in 1939 to 44,000 in March 1943. In the Portland area alone three hundred 10,000-ton cargo ships were built during the war. Lumber activities engaged 18,700 as against 9,800 before the war. This rapid expansion of over 200 percent in the durable goods components of manufacturing was accompanied by an actual reduction in other industries during the same period. Between mid-1943 and the end of the war the drop in the war industries was even more marked in Maine than in Rhode Island, with little gains in employment noted in other industries. Manufacturing dropped further by about 5,000 in the month immediately after the end of the war. Some further declines in shipbuilding took place in the

final months of 1945, but little change occurred in the general level of employment in the durable goods industries, which in March 1946 were employing 13,000 more workers than before the war. In the first quarter of 1946, employment in other manufacturing activities in Maine was rising above prewar levels.

New Hampshire.—In New Hampshire, least affected by the war of any of the New England States, employment in June 1943 was only 16 percent above the total of September 1939. The machinery manufacturing establishments, employing 3,400 workers at the outbreak of hostilities, expanded throughout the war and continued to expand further after VJ-day, employing 7,500 workers in early 1946. In textiles and apparel, employment was maintained at high levels during wartime, reflecting substantial orders from the Army and Navy for both materials and finished goods. From a total of 17,200 employees in September 1939, employment increased to 22,900 in March 1942. Little change occurred to the end of the war and, as in other States, textile employment tended to rise through the first quarter of 1946. In the leather and leather products industry, employment rose from 22,600 in September 1939 to 25,400 in March 1942 but declined to 17,000 by the fall of 1945. Gains were reported generally in all of the light industries since the end of the war, and little change occurred in the total volume of employment in the durable goods industries. Total factory employment in New Hampshire was close to the level of the war peak by March 1946, with employment 10,000 above prewar volumes.

Vermont.—From the point of view of favorable long-run effects of wartime gains in employment, Vermont—with the smallest volume of factory employment of any of the New England States—experienced a fortuitously well-balanced, if moderate, expansion of employment throughout the war and reconversion periods. Employment increased persistently in the State's major manufacturing industries—machinery, lumber and furniture, and textiles and apparel—with only minor reductions in the last years of the war and at VJ-day. Through March 1946 small gains have been reported generally, total manufacturing employment aggregating 40,100 as against 27,800 in September 1939 for the largest percentage gain (44 percent) of any State in the region.

Estimates of Total Manufacturing[1] Employment in New England for Selected Months, by State and by Industry

State and industry	Sept. 1939	June 1943[2]	Aug. 1945	Sept. 1945	Oct. 1945	Nov. 1945	Dec. 1945	Jan. 1946	Feb. 1946	Mar. 1946[2]
BY STATE										
New England: Total, all manufacturing	1,177,800	1,784,100	1,473,300	1,352,900	1,349,900	1,343,100	1,391,900	1,375,000	1,362,100	1,391,000
Durable goods	405,500	963,100	744,100	628,600	621,100	616,000	627,600	604,600	570,200	586,800
Nondurable goods	772,300	821,000	729,200	724,300	728,800	727,100	764,300	770,400	791,900	804,200
Connecticut: All manufacturing	294,800	505,600	385,600	336,100	334,800	337,200	338,500	333,800	321,600	334,800
Durable goods	163,100	369,300	278,600	226,600	224,300	225,200	221,700	216,000	200,800	211,700
Nondurable goods	131,700	136,300	107,000	109,500	110,500	112,000	116,800	117,800	120,800	123,100
Maine: All manufacturing	96,000	146,000	114,700	110,200	106,600	97,400	108,000	110,800	112,800	111,200
Durable goods	23,900	76,300	44,400	39,700	37,600	37,100	39,000	40,400	38,800	37,100
Nondurable goods	72,100	69,700	70,300	70,500	69,000	60,300	69,000	70,400	74,000	74,100
Massachusetts: All manufacturing	563,600	842,800	733,300	675,400	675,500	683,200	704,600	682,000	675,400	689,000
Durable goods	154,400	397,200	333,100	282,300	278,700	278,400	288,800	264,100	246,000	252,400
Nondurable goods	409,200	445,600	400,200	393,100	396,800	404,800	415,800	417,900	429,400	436,600
New Hampshire: All manufacturing	67,100	77,900	72,200	70,000	71,400	68,700	75,700	76,400	76,100	77,300
Durable goods	14,300	20,100	19,400	18,100	18,400	18,900	19,500	19,600	18,400	19,000
Nondurable goods	52,800	57,800	52,800	51,900	53,000	49,800	56,200	56,800	57,700	58,300
Rhode Island: All manufacturing	128,500	170,800	127,300	123,600	124,500	119,700	126,600	133,300	136,500	138,600
Durable goods	34,700	76,000	45,700	41,500	42,100	36,700	38,000	43,500	44,500	44,700
Nondurable goods	93,800	94,800	81,600	82,100	82,400	83,000	88,600	89,800	92,000	93,900
Vermont: All manufacturing	27,800	41,000	40,200	37,600	37,100	36,900	38,500	38,700	39,700	40,100
Durable goods	15,100	24,200	22,900	20,400	20,000	19,700	20,600	21,000	21,700	21,900
Nondurable goods	12,700	16,800	17,300	17,200	17,100	17,200	17,900	17,700	18,000	18,200
BY INDUSTRY										
All manufacturing	1,177,800	1,784,100	1,473,300	1,352,900	1,349,900	1,343,100	1,391,900	1,375,000	1,362,100	1,391,000
Durable goods	405,500	963,100	744,100	628,600	621,100	616,000	627,600	604,600	570,200	586,800
Lumber and timber basic products	19,200	26,600	26,300	26,100	25,600	26,500	28,400	29,700	29,300	27,800
Furniture and finished lumber products	31,200	34,900	34,700	32,700	33,400	34,200	35,400	36,400	37,200	38,000
Stone, clay, and glass products	15,400	20,900	19,600	17,800	18,400	18,600	18,900	19,000	19,700	20,800
Iron and steel products	100,100	178,400	134,600	113,900	111,100	110,300	114,300	116,500	104,600	112,300
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	14,100	218,000	109,500	74,700	66,100	62,600	64,300	64,900	63,200	63,100
Nonferrous metal products	71,400	100,200	81,500	72,700	75,400	78,500	81,200	82,400	67,900	71,400
Electrical machinery	56,200	142,700	146,000	119,100	120,200	120,500	124,600	87,200	83,500	84,200
Machinery, except electrical	94,400	234,600	186,000	166,300	165,000	158,800	154,400	162,400	158,800	163,200
Automobile equipment	3,500	6,800	5,900	5,300	5,900	6,000	6,100	6,100	6,000	6,000
									791,900	804,200
							764,300	770,400		

Machinery, except electrical	94,400	234,600	186,000	166,300	165,000	158,800	154,400	162,400	158,800	163,200
Automobiles and automobile equipment	3,500	6,800	5,900	5,300	5,900	6,000	6,100	6,100	6,000	6,000
Nondurable goods	772,300	821,000	729,200	724,300	728,800	727,100	764,300	770,400	791,900	804,200
Food and kindred products	63,800	59,000	64,800	65,900	62,700	60,900	59,600	59,800	61,900	60,900
Tobacco manufacture	3,500	1,700	1,600	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700	1,700
Textile-mill products	281,300	302,000	248,300	251,800	254,500	246,200	272,400	274,400	282,100	287,600
Apparel and other finished fabric products	84,300	72,800	64,200	64,100	64,600	64,900	65,500	66,200	69,300	71,300
Paper products	58,500	63,600	60,300	61,200	62,900	63,800	66,100	66,300	67,900	68,500
Printing and publishing	46,700	41,700	42,400	43,400	44,000	44,800	45,900	46,400	46,900	47,400
Chemicals	25,000	58,000	38,200	37,000	36,700	37,500	37,900	37,800	38,100	38,600
Petroleum and coal products	3,500	3,500	3,300	3,300	3,200	3,200	3,200	3,200	3,300	3,300
Rubber products	32,200	44,100	41,900	38,200	38,500	39,400	40,800	41,500	42,500	43,700
Leather and leather products	115,700	101,900	96,800	96,200	98,000	101,000	105,200	106,800	109,500	111,300
Miscellaneous	57,800	72,700	67,400	61,500	62,000	63,700	66,000	66,300	68,700	69,900

[1] Excludes Government arsenals and navy yards.
[2] Month of wartime peak employment in New England.
[3] Preliminary.

Work and Wage Experience of Skilled Cotton-Textile Workers [1]

COTTON textiles was a "war industry" in the sense that a large proportion of its facilities was devoted to the production of cloth for military use. Unlike such war industries as shipbuilding, ordnance, and aircraft, however, it lost rather than gained workers; between January 1942 and October 1944 cotton-textile employment in 18 northern areas declined by a third, with the result that military requirements for certain fabrics could not be met and shortages of material for civilian use became critical.

In this study the experience of skilled workers, who remained in New England mills during the war, is examined in an attempt to determine why they stayed and what happened to them in the first stage of reconversion. Other Bureau of Labor Statistics studies in this series on the work and wage experience of wartime workers [2] provide a sharp contrast to the group here considered.

In order to investigate the reasons for wartime immobility, the choice of workers was deliberately limited to three groups of relatively skilled workers believed to have strong attachments to their jobs and communities. Two hundred workers in these groups—spinners, weavers and loom fixers—were interviewed in June 1945 in New Bedford and Fall River, Mass., and in Lewiston, Maine.[3] Total employment in the three occupations accounts for approximately a fourth of the cotton-textile labor force.

The Skilled New England Cotton-Textile Worker in June 1945

When L. W., a 57-year-old weaver, was asked by the Bureau's representative whether he had changed jobs during the war, he seemed to find the question amusing. He was a cotton-textile worker and so were both his daughters. He had worked as a weaver ever since his eighteenth birthday and, it developed, in the same mill for the past 30 years.

Of course, not all of the skilled workers in New England mills during the war were as old as L. W. nor did they all have the same record of job stability. However, out of 200 workers interviewed, 70 percent of the men and 50 percent of the women were at least 45 years old. The high age level found was due partly to the manner in which the workers were selected. The emphasis on skilled workers and the omission of workers in other jobs tended to raise the age level so that the age distribution found cannot be considered typical of cotton-textile workers generally. Moreover, because the survey was made in June 1945, it is probable that a greater proportion of younger than older workers normally in these occupations had at least temporarily left the industry. The fact remains that toward the end of the war New England cotton-textile workers as represented in the occupations

[1] Prepared by Carrie Glasser and Bernard N. Freedman. The field work for this study was done under the direction of William E. Northey, Jr., regional wage analyst.

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, issues of December 1945: Work and Wage Experience of Willow Run Workers; January 1946: Wartime Labor Force of St. Paul Propeller Plant; March 1946: Wartime Labor Force of Houston Ordnance Plant; June 1946: Wilmington Shipbuilders During and After World War II.

[3] In New Bedford and Fall River union lists were used in the selection of workers' names, and in Lewiston company records. The 200 workers chosen were employed in 27 different companies in June 1945.

studied were, by and large, older workers. Further evidence is afforded by the finding that out of the 97 men interviewed, only one, aged 42, had seen military service in World War II. The age distribution of the 200 skilled cotton-textile workers—97 men and 103 women—is as follows:

	Percent in age [1] group of—	
	Men	*Women*
Under 20 years of age	1	3
20 to 44 years of age	29	47
45 years of age and over	70	50
All groups	100	100

[1] As of June 1945.

Like L. W., a large proportion of the 200 workers were old-timers in the industry. More than a fifth had not changed jobs in 20 years and nearly three-fourths had been in the same occupation in the same mill for at least 5 years. All but 8 percent were in the cotton-textile industry when the war began.

Practically all of the workers learned their jobs directly—by working. N. R., for example, a 54-year-old loom fixer, learned weaving at the age of 13. Though he had no formal training whatever (only 18 percent of the workers interviewed had been apprentices or had attended trade or vocational schools), by the time he became a loom fixer he had spent more than three decades in the industry. The women, too, reported long years of textile employment. In Fall River, 20 of the 21 women spinners had started in this occupation; some of them had held the same job for 40 years with almost no interruption. In their field, therefore, these men and women were specialists—with all the advantages and disadvantages that such occupational attachment signifies. Skilled in their trade, they were also handicapped to the extent that long years at the same routine had lessened their adaptability to other employments. It is probable that this contributed to the strong tendency to remain in the same job in the same industry for so long a time.

How long these men and women have been wage earners, and their age of entrance into the labor market, is shown in table 1. The

TABLE 1.—*Distribution of New England Cotton-Textile Workers, by Age as of June 1945, and by Age of Entrance Into the Labor Market*

Age of entrance	Percent in age groups of—			
	Men		Women	
	20 to 44 years	45 years and over	20 to 44 years	45 years and over
12 years and under	11	26	6	29
13 or 14 years	39	35	45	49
15 or 16 years	29	18	33	6
17 years and over	21	21	16	16
Total	100	100	100	100
Number of workers	28	68	49	51

majority of the workers took their first jobs when they were 14 years of age or less and, interestingly, relatively more women than men who were 45 years or older in June 1945 started work at 14 or younger.[4]

It is clear that few of these New England textile workers could have had much time for formal schooling. Five percent of the 200 workers, indeed, had no grade school education whatever, although half of this group had attended Americanization classes. Nearly a fifth reported that they had completed no more than fourth grade and only 5 percent had as much as 1 year of high school. The great majority (69 percent) managed to acquire no more than fifth to eighth grade schooling when their formal education was stopped.

Stability in occupation was matched by stability in location. About 4 percent of the workers moved from one community to another during the war; of these, two workers had come down from Canada.[5] In the past, of course, migration and especially foreign immigration, was the means bywhich New England textile mills obtained a great part of their labor force. In the three communities considered, at least a third of the population, according to the 1939 census, were foreign-born; French Canadians constituted 84 percent of this group in Lewiston and 20 percent in both Fall River and New Bedford.

Wages

Cotton-textile wage rates could not have been a strong inducement to remain in the mills, although some workers may have been encouraged to stay on as a result of wartime increases. In June 1945 straight-time hourly rates of the 200 relatively skilled workers averaged 84 cents,[6] whereas workers of all levels of skill in manufacturing showed average straight-time earnings of 97 cents in the same period.

Wartime wage increases were not inconsiderable: in 1941 two adjustments were made each amounting to 10 percent of total earnings. Again in June 1942, 7.5 cents per hour was added and 3 years later, just prior to this survey, rates were raised by 5 cents per hour, this time retroactive to October 1944. As a result, about two-thirds of the workers studied reported hourly rate increases of 25 to 50 percent between 1941 and June 1945, while more than a fourth showed gains of over 50 percent. In absolute terms, the average increase was 26.2 cents per hour.[7] By June 1945 none of the men and only 4 of the women interviewed were earning less than 60 cents per hour, whereas in January 1941 all but 17 women and nearly two-fifths of the men with prewar employment experience earned less than this amount. Despite the wartime rise, cotton-textile wages remained among the lowest in the manufacturing group. It is understandable, therefore, that with the great growth of employment opportunities elsewhere the drain of workers from textiles should have been heavy.

[4] Of course, not all were continuously in the labor force from the time of their first jobs until June 1945.
[5] For purposes of this study, only those moves were counted which were undertaken to find a job or to take a job already offered.
[6] The average hourly rate for men was 92 cents and for women, 77 cents.
[7] Based on 184 workers for whom data were available in both periods.

The wage disparity can also be demonstrated in terms of weekly earnings. In June 1945 the present group of workers, on the average, grossed approximately $38 per week (men earned $43.45 and women, $32.79). For all manufacturing industries, covering workers of all grades of skill, average gross weekly earnings in the same month amounted to $46.35. The difference of more than $8 was due only in part to differences in hourly rates. Compared to workers in other industries, relatively few cotton-textile workers worked overtime and received premium overtime pay. Out of the 200 workers studied, more than half worked 40 or fewer hours per week in June 1945; only about 12 percent worked 48 hours or more. Although overtime was not as prevalent as in other industries during the war, the work load of cotton-textile workers was increased in certain instances. On the third shift some men employed as spinners were required to add doffing functions normally reserved for women. Other spinners took over more sides than was usual and some loom fixers and weavers handled more looms. Extra pay for such additional work helped to increase the earnings of those affected.

Thirty-eight dollars a week was not, of course, the amount of money the average skilled New England cotton-textile worker had to spend in June 1945. Deductions for income taxes, social security taxes, and union dues decreased weekly take-home pay to about $33. Further, after allowing for a 31-percent rise in the cost-of-living essentials, the $33 could purchase only $25 worth of goods and services at 1941 prices.

These low earnings partly account for the fact that the great majority of the 200 workers reported other employed persons in their families. Almost two-thirds of the men and four-fifths of the women interviewed lived in families in which there was at least one other person working; nearly a fourth of all the workers were in families with 2 or more wage earners. D. R., for example, a 22-year-old weaver, averaged $34 per week in June 1945. His wife was employed as a spooler, and their combined earnings were $63—only $8 more per week than he earned one winter as a common laborer in another industry. The $48 weekly earnings of his father-in-law, a card grinder who resided with him, added to the total income of D. R.'s family. There were, however, 36 workers or nearly a fifth of the entire group, who had other persons in their families, none of whom was employed.

Consistent with the level of hourly and weekly earnings, annual wage incomes of these workers were also low. In 1944 more than three-fourths of the 200 workers, all in relatively skilled jobs, earned less than $2,000 and approximately two-fifths had an annual wage income of less than $1,500. Owing largely to wage increases in 1944, annual incomes for that year were higher than in 1943 when more than four-fifths of the workers earned less than $2,000 and nearly half, less than $1,500.

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TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Identical Cotton-Textile Workers in 1943 and 1944, by Annual Wage Income Group and Sex*

Income group	All workers		Men		Women	
	1943	1944	1943	1944	1943	1944
All income groups	196	196	97	97	99	99
Under $500	2	2			2	2
$500 and under $1,000	21	10	1		20	10
$1,000 and under $1,500	68	66	18	15	50	51
$1,500 and under $2,000	68	74	42	41	26	33
$2,000 and under $2,500	26	29	25	26	1	3
$2,500 and under $3,000	8	11	8	11		
$3,000 and under $3,500	2	3	2	3		
$3,500 and under $4,000		[1] 1		[1] 1		
$4,000 and under $4,500	1		[1] 1			

[1] During all of 1943 and 1944 this person was a ship fitter in a Maine shipyard.

Annual wage incomes would have been somewhat higher in 1943 and 1944 than the figures in table 2 indicate, if all of the workers had worked steadily throughout the year. Separate data for each year are not available, but between January 1941 and June 1945 (that is, for most of the war period) 76 persons reported 98 interruptions in employment, each interruption lasting 1 month or more. Nearly a third of these interruptions were due to illness and another third to a strike in Fall River. The heavy incidence of illness, higher among women than men, may have been due to the fact that many workers were in the older age groups. Injuries and other unspecified reasons were also reported as causing interruptions in employment.

What Kept These Workers in the Mills?

Although individuals may have been disadvantaged, it was clearly in the national interest that there were workers who stayed on in the mills.[8] A complete explanation of why they remained is beyond the scope of this report, because it would involve consideration of many factors not all of which have been studied. Some of the important considerations can be set forth briefly.

As a result of the wartime drain of younger workers—some going to other industries and some into the armed forces—those who remained as weavers, spinners, and loom fixers were typically over 45 years of age, with long-time service in the mills. While their age may have limited the range of employment opportunities and thus contributed to immobility, many undoubtedly chose to stay rather than sacrifice their seniority rights. In the plants employing the 200 workers studied, preferential treatment in hiring, promotion, and lay-offs was based on length of service in a single occupation, with consideration given to efficiency and skill.[9] The rigid limitation of the unit within which seniority applied meant that the acceptance of a transfer, even within the same mill, generally involved the loss, after 1 year, of all seniority in the occupation vacated. To leave the mill meant to forfeit all rights to preferential treatment.

[8] Since his economic rewards were so much less than those secured by workers in other industries, the contribution of the textile worker in the war effort should not be minimized. In certain instances this contribution received official recognition; many textile mills were awarded Army-Navy E's for their production records.

[9] For a detailed analysis of seniority provisions in the cotton-textile industry, see Union Agreements in the Cotton-Textile Industry, in Monthly Labor Review, March 1946.

It is not difficult to appreciate that in New England, where the cotton-textile industry has been subject to a long-run decline, job security has taken on added importance. For the individual worker, competition from the South and from foreign countries, or from rayon and other synthetic products, is something which he may recognize but cannot control. Of immediate value to him is the claim to a job provided by seniority rights, entitling him to preferential treatment in relation to other job contenders. That a large number of workers who remained in the industry had much to lose by yielding these rights is suggested by the following: Among 187 workers for whom data were available, 23 percent had been in the same job for 20 years or more, 13 percent for 15 to 20 years, 19 percent for 10 to 15 years, and 16 percent for 5 to 10 years. It is reasonable to assume that these workers accepted comparatively low wages in the textile industry in order to save their seniority privileges and their hope of steady employment. Direct evidence of the value placed on these rights was provided in New Bedford in February 1945, when the War Manpower Commission ordered 500 textile workers to transfer to tire factories in that city. Although more than one issue was involved, the fact that no assurance was given that seniority privileges would be protected was one of the reasons for the refusal of workers to abide by the Government order.[10]

Other motives influencing workers to remain in the mills are harder to assess. Like the coal miners of Wales, who all through the desperate 1920's and 1930's suffered, yet stayed amid the shut-down collieries, and like many miners in this country during the great depression, textile workers show a strong attachment to their trades and their communities. Many of these workers can point to their fathers, grandfathers, and great grandfathers who have been textile workers. A few can even claim that they have been textile workers in more than one country. R. L., for instance, started at the age of 14 as a tenter or weaver's helper in a cotton-textile mill in England. By his fortieth birthday he was a mill superintendent in that country. Later, he moved to India where again he supervised the operations of a cotton mill. In 1927, yielding to the urgings of his brother in Massachusetts, he and his wife came to this country. When interviewed in June 1945 he suggested that possibly he had arrived too late.

Workers' attachments have not only been solidified by family traditions, but also by the fact that community life has to a large extent centered on mill employment. In some towns the textile mill is the only source of jobs while in larger communities with greater diversification, such as Fall River, New Bedford, and Lewiston, the mills exert a dominant influence. Since people are generally hesitant and reluctant to change homes, friends, and manner of life, the high degree of economic homogeneity of the community is a force directed toward retaining the status quo.

The organization and functioning of unions in these cities also has increased the attachment of workers to their jobs and homes, because they act not only as bargaining agents but also as the focus of much

[10] It was also protested that the jobs offered in the tire factories involved night work on the third shift, heavier work loads, inadequate compensation for the extra work, and loss of insurance benefits accumulated by workers in the textile mills. The Mayor of New Bedford, defending the refusal of workers to comply with the War Manpower Commission's order, added that another reason was "the general knowledge that the [tire] concern eventually will leave New Bedford." (New York Times, Feb. 19, 23, and 28, 1945.)

of the workers' social life. This has been and still is more characteristic of New Bedford and Fall River than of Lewiston (Maine), where unionization is more recent.[11] In fact, only with the advent of World War II were Lewiston workers attracted to unions in large numbers. Thus, in Fall River and New Bedford, where the workers studied were chosen from union records, nearly 9 out of 10 workers reported that their membership dated from sometime before the war. By contrast, in Lewiston, where plant pay rolls were used in the selection of the sample, only 8 out of 60 workers claimed prewar union affiliation; however, by June 1945 all but 8 had joined. Although the method by which the workers were chosen undoubtedly accounts for some of the intercity differences, it is believed that the higher union representation in Fall River and New Bedford is characteristic of these two cities.

Experience in the First Phase of Reconversion

By resisting the allure of war jobs in "expendable" industries, cotton-textile workers were not faced with unemployment and wage cuts when peace came. In the winter of 1946, 189 of the 200 workers surveyed were still employed with the same company as in June 1945, 5 were working elsewhere, and only 2 were unemployed and seeking work. Six women had withdrawn from the labor market; 3 other workers had died in the interim. With respect to employment, the textile workers were decidedly better off than shipyard workers in Wilmington, Del., of whom over a fourth were jobless in the winter of 1946, as were a fifth of the Willow Run workers, 18 percent of the St. Paul propeller workers, more than a third of Mobile shipbuilders, and over a fourth of Vancouver shipbuilders.[12]

In general, during the first phase of reconversion, both men and women were working slightly less time for slightly more money. This was largely due to a general wage rate increase of 8 cents an hour granted November 5, 1945, and to the raise in the minimum rate from 57 to 65 cents an hour. The effect of these adjustments on gross weekly earnings is shown in table 3, which also presents comparable data for 1941. In current prices, these workers averaged about $16 more per week than in 1941. After deflating for price rise, the advantage over 1941 was reduced to approximately $6.

[11] The first textile union in the country that might be called a national union was organized by the mule spinners of Fall River soon after the Civil War. By 1895 the Fall River Textile Council and the New Bedford Textile Council had been organized to coordinate the craft unions. These councils still function within the framework of present day affiliations. The history of almost every local union is a cross-patch of periods of affiliation and independence since 1901—the date of founding of the United Textile Workers (AFL) and even more so since the emergence of the Textile Workers Union (CIO) in 1936. Without changing their local union membership it has been possible for some workers to belong for varying intervals to the AFL, CIO, and an independent union in the past 20 years.

[12] See Workers' Experiences During the First Phase of Reconversion, in Monthly Labor Review, May 1946.

TABLE 3.—*Gross Weekly Earnings and Weekly Hours of 135 New England Cotton-Textile Workers, Specified Periods, by Sex*

Sex	Gross weekly earnings			Weekly hours		
	January 1941	June 1945	January 1946	January 1941	June 1945	January 1946
Average: 135 workers	$23.68	$38.69	$39.63	40.3	43.3	42.9
Men [1]	26.80	43.91	44.05	40.6	44.9	44.3
Women [2]	20.03	32.56	34.44	40.0	41.5	41.4

[1] Based on 73 men.
[2] Based on 62 women.

By comparison, in January 1946 gross weekly pay of the relatively skilled cotton-textile workers studied was still below that of workers in manufacturing as a whole. However, between June 1945 and January 1946 the latter showed a decline from $46.34 to $41.14, a reduction of 11 percent while weekly hours fell 8 percent, from 44.6 to 41.0. Within the manufacturing group, especially among workers in war industries, the drop in earnings was even greater. Los Angeles aircraft workers' weekly earnings fell 23 percent, Houston ordnance workers 35 percent, Wichita aircraft workers 40 percent, and St. Paul propeller plant workers 41 percent.[12] The losses suffered were largely due to the lower rates in the peacetime industries to which these workers had shifted and to the reduction in hours worked with consequent loss of premium overtime pay.

While the experience of the New England cotton-textile worker since VE-day has been fortunate, the duration of this state of affairs is difficult to forecast. As long as the accumulated demands for textiles remain unsatisfied, it will not be difficult for the textile worker to market his services. Under these conditions even the reabsorption of former servicemen will probably be accomplished with little difficulty. Among those surveyed, only one man, the youngest in the group, reported that he had to be transferred to a new set of looms when a veteran returned to claim his job.

In the long run, if demand recedes, the diminishing range of employment opportunities in New England mills may again become a critical problem. Since 1923 employment in northern mills has been declining because of the rapid growth of the industry in the South, where nearly three-fourths of the spindles were located in early 1946. Differences in wage levels between the North and South were not the only reasons for New England's loss. The South, starting later, was also able to take advantage of technological improvements which offset some of its handicap of having to train unskilled workers. During the war, the North moved ahead by improving machinery and other equipment so that, in the belief of some New England manufacturers, the technological differences between the two regions have been virtually eliminated. Aside from competition with southern cotton textiles, the North may also be affected by the possible development of synthetics not adaptable to the cotton system of manufacture or by competition from textile products of foreign countries. All these elements will have a part in shaping the future for the New England textile worker.

Connecticut Program for Veterans' Readjustment and Reemployment [1]

THE Connecticut program for veterans, which was initiated in August 1943, is administered by the Connecticut Veterans Reemployment and Advisory Commission created by the State Legislature in 1945. The primary mission of the program is to give returning veterans of World War II opportunities to acquire useful skills, to find suitable jobs, and to assist in their orderly readjustment to community life. The principal requisite for carrying out this program is organization on the local community level of the Federal, State, and local public and private agencies that can supply immediate assistance to veterans in their adjustment and employment problems.

The success of the Connecticut program is indicated by the fact that veterans' advisory committees were functioning in 160 of the 169 towns in the State by May 31, 1946, and that 100 of these committees had combined their resources to provide 60 veterans' advisory centers which reached nearly every trading area of the State. More than 1,000 veterans visit these centers daily for information, counseling, and guidance in the solution of their personal problems.

The Connecticut plan, the first of its kind in the United States, has been recommended by the Readjustment and Retraining Administration of the United States Department of Labor as a model for similar programs in other States.

Development of the Plan

The Connecticut program grew out of the realization, early in the war, that with the ending of hostilities the State would face serious economic and social problems resulting from the displacement of workers in war industries and from the demobilization of about 250,000 veterans, representing nearly a quarter of its male population. Estimates made at the time by the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed that Connecticut would face a serious reemployment problem.

The implications of a hurried, unplanned demobilization had been brought home to officials within the State by the report of a State fact-finding commission in 1939, headed by Carl A. Gray, a Plainville manufacturer. In investigating the employment problems of workers over 40, the commission discovered that many of the unemployed older workers were World War I veterans who had never fully adjusted to civilian life and who had found no opportunity to learn a trade or profession. "The fundamental prejudice was not so much against age as it was against the man over 40 who had no useful training," many of whom "had just drifted from World War I."

As the number of men in the armed forces was far higher than in World War I, and their length of service longer, it was apparent that to prevent a recurrence of the same problem effort had to be made to assist veterans to develop skills, to obtain vocational guidance,

[1] Prepared by Everett J. Burtt, Jr., industrial economist of the Boston Regional Office, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor.

and to acquire further education or special training necessary to qualify them for suitable employment. As many Federal, State, and local agencies already had well-developed programs in these fields, the primary need was to organize those activities to make them readily available to the veterans. It was believed that the community itself should be the focal point of any adjustment and employment program and should develop its own resources, but with full utilization of available Federal and State assistance.

Organization

The coordinating agency for the program of veterans' adjustment and reemployment was originally the Connecticut Reemployment Commission, appointed by Gov. Raymond E. Baldwin in August 1943, and is now the Connecticut Veterans Reemployment and Advisory Commission, previously mentioned.[2] On the State level, this agency has the over-all responsibility of developing plans for the orderly return of veterans to their communities and jobs, and of coordinating the activities of governmental and civic agencies concerned with the welfare of veterans and their dependents. Finally, the commission promotes, guides, and advises local advisory committees and assists them in setting up veterans' service centers and other facilities.

The commission at the end of May 1946 consisted of 29 members representing the important Federal, State, and private groups concerned with veterans' problems. Federal agencies were represented by the Veterans' Administration, the United States Employment Service, and Selective Service. For the State, the Governor, the Agent of the Veterans' Home Commission, the Administrator of the Soldiers', Sailors' and Marines' Fund, the Secretary of the State Board of Education, the Bank Commission, and the Commissioner of Agriculture were members ex-officio, in addition to the State Labor Commissioner. Finally there were representatives of industry, labor, veterans' organizations, and the general public. According to the law, a majority of the members must be veterans of the First or Second World Wars, and must be drawn from both major political parties (sec. 446h).

On the local level, community veterans' advisory committees consist of representatives of the key Federal and State agencies and of broad sections of the community. The Bridgeport Committee, for example, includes functional cooperating subcommittees for each of 32 interest groups in the area, such as business, industry, labor, education, medical care and health, finance, real estate, insurance, recreation, social agencies, veterans' service, fraternal and religious groups, agriculture, retailing, and legal interests. All interest groups are represented not only to provide coordination of the resources of the community but also to provide means for disseminating information directly to all parts of the community life.

Wherever possible, the local committee will establish veterans' information and advisory service centers to act as central clearing

[2] The present commission continues the program and policies of the Connecticut Reemployment Commission, except that the adjustment and reemployment problems of displaced war workers have been excluded. In practice, however, the local committees and advisory centers assist all who request information.

houses for veterans desiring service. In the larger communities, these centers include trained vocational and educational counselors, financial and business counselors, and others who specialize in insurance and social services. In addition, representatives of the Veterans' Administration, the local United States Employment Service, and the Red Cross may serve on a full or part-time basis.

Operation of the Program

All operations of the Connecticut program are directed toward improving the services that can be made available to the veteran by the local committee or center.

The initial step of the commission in organizing a local program is education of the community in veterans' problems of postwar readjustment. To develop a sense of community responsibility and understanding of the personal and economic problems that veterans face upon their return, the State commission initiated community educational programs. The State Department of Education and the University of Connecticut directed these programs of 6 to 12 sessions a week held in the more heavily populated areas of the State and of one-night community meetings in the smaller areas.

Serving as an outlet for information and publicity, the commission supplies centers and committees with digests of laws, booklets, and information on recent developments in Federal and State programs affecting veterans' welfare Beginning in September 1944, the commission has published a monthly 16-page bulletin entitled "Reemployment," which contains news of interest to veterans.

A second step to improve operation of the centers is establishment of training facilities for personnel employed in the centers and agencies serving veterans. The commission organized a Center Operational Training Course in Bridgeport, and provided more professional training for counselors in 2-week, 1-month, and 4-month training courses through the Vocational Counseling Service, Inc. (a nonprofit organization), in New Haven.

Thirdly, the commission sought to place within each major center professionally trained vocational and educational counselors. Realizing that many veterans have had no previous work experience and desire guidance in choosing their postwar careers, the commission emphasized the need of providing expert counseling personnel and recommended that the larger centers hire such personnel on a full- or part-time basis. For centers that can neither afford nor obtain such assistance, the services of the Vocational Counseling Service, Inc., are made available to any veteran within the State.

Finally, the commission has worked specifically with the State Development Commission, chambers of commerce, and management and labor officials in stimulating the reemployment of veterans. Area meetings have been held with industry representatives to foster job training under the provision of Public Law 346 (the G. I. Bill of Rights). Now under way is a special program designed to promote veterans' counseling services within industry, so that the adjustment of veterans to the job can be made under the supervision of professionally trained counselors.

Source of Funds

The Connecticut program for veterans is financed by State, local, and private funds, with the State Commission receiving an allotment directly from the State. The increase in these funds in the last 3 years indicates the growth of the program, particularly in the last year. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, the original Connecticut Reemployment Commission received an allotment of $12,000 and for 1944–45, $23,000.

For the fiscal year 1945–46, the budget of the commission was $74,423, with an additional $19,500 allotted for the training of center personnel and counselors at Bridgeport and at the New Haven Vocational Counseling Service, Inc.

Local committees and centers, however, are financed by local funds. In some cases these funds are drawn from the local community chest and in others they are local government appropriations.

Results of Program

While it is difficult to measure the effectiveness of the Connecticut plan in contributing to the readjustment and reemployment of veterans within the State, the program has materially assisted in the efficient coordination of the activities of the participating agencies. The program has also served to increase public awareness of its responsibilities to returning veterans and of the problems they face.

The fact that by May 31, 1946, 160 out of a total of 169 towns in the State had organized veterans' advisory committees, indicates widespread community response to the reemployment and adjustment program. The 60 veterans' advisory centers which had been established by that date represented 100 towns, with a population of 1,711,299, and covered every major trading area within the State, except one. Full- or part-time professionally qualified vocational counselors were provided in 25 of the centers, and expert counseling services were made available to every veteran in the State who requested it.

The number of visits made by veterans to the centers offers an indication of the response of the veterans themselves to the program. Total visits to May 1, 1946, in all centers were 207,285—more than the estimated total of servicemen (some 181,000) who returned to the State—indicating that many veterans were revisiting the centers. Although the records of visits are not complete, it is estimated that more than 1,000 veterans a day visit the 60 centers throughout the State.

Massachusetts Fair Employment Practice Act of 1946[1]

THE right of inhabitants of the State of Massachusetts "to work without discrimination of race, color, religious creed, national origin, or ancestry" was given legislative support under the State's Fair Employment Practice Act approved on May 23, 1946 (ch. 368). Provision was made for appointment by the Governor of a Fair Employment Practice Commission consisting of three members, who are to formulate policies for the prevention of discrimination in employment. The commission is to maintain its principal office in Boston and such other offices within the State as it deems necessary, and is to pass on complaints of alleged discrimination. Other States having such laws are New Jersey and New York.[2]

Definition of Unfair Practices

An employer may not discriminate by refusal to hire or by discharge, or in the conditions or privileges of employment, of any individual unless the action is based on a bona fide occupational qualification. Labor organizations are forbidden to exclude any person from full membership, or to expel him, or to discriminate in any way against any employee or employer, for reasons of race, religious creed, color, national origin, or ancestry. Nor may an employer or employment agency express in printed or verbal form, either directly or indirectly, any limitation, specification, or discrimination. It is also unlawful for any person, employer, labor organization, or employment agency to expel or otherwise discriminate against a person because he has opposed any of the practices forbidden by this law or because he has filed a complaint or assisted in any proceeding before the commission. To aid, abet, incite, compel, or coerce the performance of any of the foregoing prohibited acts is an unlawful employment practice.

Remedy for Unfair Practices

If the Fair Employment Practice Commission finds that an unlawful employment practice has been committed, an order must be issued requiring that it shall cease. Appropriate and required affirmative action is defined as "including (but is not limited to) hiring, reinstatement or upgrading of employees, with or without back pay, or restoration to membership in any respondent labor organization, as, in the judgment of the commission, will effectuate the purposes of this chapter, and including a requirement for report of the manner of compliance." Complaints must be filed within 6 months after the alleged act of discrimination occurs.

Penalties of not less than $10 nor more than $100 are authorized for failure on the part of employers, employment agencies, or labor organizations to post conspicuously notices of the salient provisions of the legislation under review. Any member of these three groups who willfully resists or interferes with the administration of the law, willfully violates a final order of the commission, or willfully files a false complaint, is to be punished (for each offense) by imprisonment for not more than 1 year or a fine of not more than $500, or both.

[1] Data are from Labor Relations Reporter, Labor-Management Relations, Laws and Regulations, June 3, 1946, 18 LRRM (pp. 3008–3013).

[2] For summary of these laws, see Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 990).

Recent Developments in Rhode Island Cash Sickness Benefits [1]

THE Rhode Island Cash Sickness Compensation Act, the first of its kind in the United States, has been in operation for more than 3 years since the first benefit payments were made in April 1943.[2] Contributions to the fund, however, began shortly after the law was passed in the spring of 1942. The experience of the first 36 benefit months in this State is currently serving as a guide to other States (for example, California [3] and New Jersey) in planning sick-benefit programs. Rhode Island has also profited by analyzing its own experience and by correcting its original law as shortcomings have become apparent. The current status of the cash sickness-benefit plan in Rhode Island is of paramount interest to legislators, administrators, and students of social security measures.

The Rhode Island law as first passed provided for employee contributions of 1 percent on the first $3,000 of annual earnings, with no employer contribution. This tax did not represent an additional burden on employees, as their contribution to the unemployment compensation fund was accordingly reduced from 1½ percent to ½ percent. The favorable financial status of the unemployment compensation fund in 1942 offered ample evidence that employees' contributions could be diverted at that time to the new cash sickness fund without impairing the unemployment fund. A 1-week waiting period is required after illness is contracted before benefits can be paid, with weekly benefits limited to $18. Weekly payments are based upon the highest wages in any quarter of the base year, and total benefits for any benefit year depend upon annual earnings in the base year. The smallest total payment possible in a benefit year is $34 (based upon wages of $100), and the largest is $364.50 (based on wages of $1,800 or more).

Status of the Cash Sickness Fund

Beginning with the second quarter of 1944, a net operating deficit was reported in each quarter through the first 3 months of 1946, with the exception of the fourth quarter of 1944, when a small net increment was reported (table 1). This recent unfavorable relationship between income and disbursements contrasts sharply with the more favorable experience during 1943—the first full year of the fund—when net increments were reported in each quarter. The March end-of-month balance of the fund was 3.5 million dollars in 1944, compared with less than 2.8 million dollars in 1945 and with 2.2 million dollars in 1946 (table 2), indicating a steady and rapid shrinkage of available funds and pointing to the necessity of drastic corrective action.

Excess of disbursements over receipts may be traced to several sources: (1) Total pay rolls in Rhode Island began declining in 1944,

[1] Prepared by Wendell D. Macdonald, director of the Bureau's regional office at Boston.
[2] For description of the earlier operation of the act, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1945.
[3] By an amendment to its unemployment-insurance act, approved March 5, 1946, California adopted a system of disability-benefit payments which bears many similarities to the Rhode Island program (see a forthcoming article in the August issue of the Review).

resulting in a reduced inflow of taxes. (2) Potential claims for the benefit year beginning on April 1 are based upon the worker's earnings in the preceding calendar year. This means that in a period of declining pay rolls, when receipts tend to fall below disbursements, benefits may be based upon an earlier period of higher employment levels and higher earnings. (3) The drain on the fund because of certain types of cases was undoubtedly too high under the original law. This was true of pregnancy, workmen's compensation, and retired workers' cases. In addition to placing a heavy burden upon the fund, excess payments for these three kinds of claims tended to favor some individuals and discriminate against others merely because of technicalities in the law.

TABLE 1.—*Receipts, Disbursements, and Net Increment to Rhode Island Cash Sickness Fund, by Quarters, 1942–46* [1]

Calendar year and quarter	Receipts	Disbursements		Net increment or operating deficit
		Net benefits	All other	
1942	$1,584,592.55		$1,425.62	+$1,583,166.93
First quarter				
Second quarter	84.99			+84.99
Third quarter	397,706.80		.68	+397,706.18
Fourth quarter	1,186,800.70		1,424.94	+1,185,375.76
1943	4,712,188.09	$2,857,168.38	61,167.92	+1,793,851.79
First quarter	1,093,181.49		16,411.09	+1,076,770.40
Second quarter	1,209,717.48	836,347.26	5,676.70	+367,693.52
Third quarter	1,262,115.78	1,114,979.17	25,278.98	+121,857.63
Fourth quarter	1,147,173.34	905,841.95	13,801.15	+227,530.24
1944	4,624,304.55	5,034,675.50	176,956.29	−587,327.24
First quarter	1,062,250.93	917,142.38	11,950.13	+133,158.42
Second quarter	1,234,546.44	1,575,913.76	88,497.63	−429,864.95
Third quarter	1,201,063.54	1,456,294.00	39,343.74	−294,574.20
Fourth quarter	1,126,443.64	1,085,325.36	37,164.79	+3,953.49
1945	4,417,932.25	4,668,796.24	137,312.79	−388,176.78
First quarter	981,889.10	972,861.39	33,265.41	−24,237.70
Second quarter	1,275,184.17	1,435,236.46	29,456.67	−189,508.96
Third quarter	1,227,372.19	1,247,860.39	37,769.54	−58,257.74
Fourth quarter	933,486.79	1,012,838.00	36,821.17	−116,172.38
1946:				
First quarter	836,590.86	972,189.00	27,629.76	−163,227.90

[1] Data supplied by Rhode Island Unemployment Compensation Board.

TABLE 2.—*Balance in Rhode Island Cash Sickness Compensation Fund, by Months, June 1942 to April 1946* [1]

Month	Balance at end of month				
	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946
January		$1,767,756.00	$3,420,222.08	$2,729,416.60	$2,307,215.82
February		2,644,774.05	3,815,686.36	3,104,150.96	2,556,170.33
March		2,659,937.33	3,510,177.14	2,765,453.78	2,238,286.80
April		2,988,331.62	3,649,048.17	2,720,206.77	[2] 1,857,188.55
May		3,453,845.79	3,758,776.18	3,043,018.83	
June	$84.99	3,027,630.85	3,080,312.19	2,575,944.82	
July	130,399.19	3,026,850.39	3,059,269.51	2,462,930.92	
August	388,934.70	3,493,648.64	3,184,577.67	2,816,000.19	
September	397,791.17	3,149,488.48	2,785,737.99	2,517,687.08	
October	624,338.75	3,145,225.14	2,758,684.91	2,519,401.88	
November	1,567,286.14	3,645,322.64	3,061,045.28	2,688,366.58	
December	1,583,166.93	3,377,018.72	2,789,691.48	2,401,514.70	

[1] Data supplied by Rhode Island Unemployment Compensation Board.
[2] Unusually low because the board had postponed payments by employers to the fund while the amended bill was pending in the General Assembly.

Recent Amendments to Law

Recognition of need for immediate and drastic measures to preserve the fund's solvency and to eliminate inequities in benefit payments led the General Assembly in the January 1946 session to amend the existing act (effective July 1, 1946)[4] in several important respects. The principal provisions of the changes are discussed in the following sections.

INCREASED RATE OF CONTRIBUTIONS

Beginning July 1, 1946, and for a period of 2 years, the employee's rate of contribution to the Cash Sickness Compensation Fund is increased from 1 percent to 1½ percent of his wages (on the first $3,000 in a calendar year). The worker now makes his entire contribution of 1½ percent to the sickness fund, discontinuing payment of ½ percent to the unemployment-compensation fund. The elimination of this contribution was justified on the ground that the unemployment-compensation fund had an extremely large balance, amounting to about 70 million dollars—deemed adequate to take care of any future drain.

The rise in the rate of contributions to the sickness fund may be expected to increase receipts by at least $200,000 to $300,000 each quarter beginning with the fourth quarter in 1946. The expected expansion in income will undoubtedly wipe out quarterly operating deficits, which ranged from $24,000 to $116,000 during the four quarters of 1945. In addition, the increased revenue will serve to bring net balances up to totals comparable with the last half of 1943 and the first half of 1944, when reserves were running quite high (table 2).

DURATION OF BENEFITS FOR PREGNANCY

Under the amended law, benefits for pregnancy cases are limited to 15 weeks, although payments may be extended if unusual complications result from childbirth. In the benefit year ended April 1944, over $652,000 was paid to pregnant women. The original law tended to favor women with children born from October to the end of December, and to discriminate against those born between May and August. This curious situation arose from the fact that although weekly benefits may be the same, some women (dependent upon delivery date) were able to collect benefits during 2 benefit years—1 ending March 31 and the other beginning April 1.

RETIRED-WORKERS' BENEFITS

Since VJ-day, many potential beneficiaries of the cash sickness plan in Rhode Island have retired from the labor market. This group includes, for the most part, housewives and older workers who took jobs in wartime during the manpower shortage. Many of these retired workers remained eligible for cash sickness payments by reason of their contributions to the fund in the calendar year 1945. At any time between April 1, 1946, and March 31, 1947, they would have

[4] H. B. 979, amending ch. 284, General Laws (as amended), and ch. 1200, Public Laws 1942 (as amended) Approved Apr. 24, 1946. (Commerce Clearing House, Rhode Island Advance Session Laws, p. 63.)

been permitted to make claims for sickness benefits, even though they were no longer members of the labor force.

Accordingly, the act has been amended to prevent benefit payments to any person who has not worked within a period of 6 months, or applied for employment at the U. S. Employment Service. Under the new law, it is extremely difficult for a person to retire from the labor market and still enjoy the protection of the sickness-benefit program. Those who have not worked for an extended period and have no intention of returning to work will not be eligible for benefits, even though they have in the past contributed to the fund. The Unemployment Compensation Commission has pointed out [5] that "basically, the fund was designed to maintain to a limited degree the family income of the worker who is forced to quit work because of illness. It was assumed that in most cases this would be a temporary condition and the worker would return to his regular employment as soon as his health permitted. The situation presented by those persons who have left the labor market with no intention of returning to employment is entirely different."

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION CASES

Prior to the recent amendment, it was permissible for a worker to receive both cash sickness insurance and workmen's compensation concurrently, even though the total amount exceeded the full-time weekly wages which would have been earned had he been able to work. An analysis of 1 year's experience with those who collected benefits from both sources indicated that over 25 percent of the recipients received an amount greater than their normal full-time weekly earnings. As workers who suffer industrial injuries usually receive 60 percent of their average weekly wage and free medical care during the period of disability, their need for cash sickness benefits is obviously not as great as in the case of those who do not. Effective July 1, 1946, no benefits are to be paid to any person in excess of an amount which, when combined with any workmen's compensation payment, is more than 90 percent of the average weekly wage of the employee at his last regular employment.

ABILITY TO PERFORM REGULAR WORK

Under the terms of the original act the definition of sickness was not clear as to whether a worker able to perform at a job other than his regular work was entitled to benefits. A Rhode Island court decision, however, ruled that ability to perform any work disqualified a worker from receiving benefits.

Under the recent amendment, an individual is deemed sick in any week in which, because of his physical or mental condition, he is unable to perform his regular or customary work. In addition, he is eligible for benefits even though his employer pays him his regular wages during absence caused by sickness.

This amendment, unlike the pregnancy and workmen's compensation amendments, may doubtless serve to loosen rather than tighten the requirements for receiving benefits. A worker whose regular

[5] Ninth Annual Report, Unemployment Compensation Commission, 1944, Providence [1945?] (mimeographed).

duties require hard physical labor is entitled to benefits under the amendment, even though his illness is such that he could perform other duties requiring less physical strain. This provision may make it easier for a worker to establish his claim to benefits and may prevent denial of payment to those who suffer from ailments which keep them from doing their customary work. Only experience will indicate whether the decisions which must be made in individual cases will be more or less difficult under the new criterion of "regular work." The decisions which the commission has had to make as to whether the potential beneficiary could do some kind of work and, if so, what kind, have been difficult. Measurements of degrees of illness are largely matters of opinion. The new regulation may, on the other hand, result in the introduction of even greater complications than in the past, since additional factors relating to a claimant's specific occupation will have to be considered. A possible disadvantage of the new amendment is that it may provide a loophole for malingerers, who may take temporary employment requiring less physical exertion than their regular jobs, collecting, at the same time, cash sickness benefits.

ADMINISTRATION

Appeals.—The Unemployment Compensation Board has been given power to reverse decisions of referees if the decision overrules or modifies the findings of a claims examiner.

A 3-member board of review is to be appointed to consider appeals from the decisions of the Unemployment Compensation Board. One is to represent employees, another the public, and a third the medical profession. The review board is empowered to consider only those decisions of the Unemployment Compensation Board which are not unanimous.

Increase in administrative funds.—Beginning July 1, 1946, for a period of 2 years, the amount allocated for the expenses of administering the Cash Sickness Benefit Fund is to be increased from 3 to 4 percent of the contributions for each fiscal year.

Educational publicity program.—The Unemployment Compensation Board also was directed by the General Assembly to undertake an educational publicity program. This is to include soliciting the cooperation and assistance of labor, industry, and the general public. Among other things, the board is directed to publicize the need for accident prevention and the preservation of health.

Appointment of advisory committee.—A permanent advisory committee of 7 members is to serve under the new amendment. The Governor was designated to appoint 3 members to represent labor and 2 the public, 1 of the public members to be selected from the medical profession. The chairman of the labor committees of the Rhode Island Senate and House of Representatives consitute the other 2 members. This committee is directed to meet monthly and review the activities of the administration of the Cash Sickness Benefit Fund and to file reports with the Unemployment Compensation Board and with the Governor. Their advisory responsibilities are broad, and they are to make recommendations in regard to administration, management, and operation of the fund. An annual report to the Governor by the committee will contain recommendations as to any proposed amendments regarding the cash sickness fund.

Foreign Labor Conditions

Labor Conditions in Belgium, 1945 and Early 1946[1]

DURING 1945, Belgian labor and industry passed from the experience of liberation to the task of postwar rehabilitation. When the National Government returned in September 1944, the labor force of the country was scattered and industrial production for the civilian population had fallen to extremely low levels. Before the year ended, industry had been sufficiently revived to supply the country's most pressing requirements, agricultural production had reached 50 to 60 percent of prewar totals, serious unemployment had been avoided, and the labor shortage in the coal mines had been temporarily relieved by the use of prisoners of war. An effort had been made to keep prices and wages in line by giving only moderate wage increases and assisting workers with enlarged social-security benefits which included clothing and household equipment coupons. In the spring of 1946, rising prices and wage demands endangered the Government's stabilization program. Industrial relations benefited during the year 1945 from the reestablishment of the Belgian system of joint industrial councils. Trade-union membership was growing and labor was represented in some 20 Government commissions.

Employment, Unemployment, and Production

Belgium had the same manpower problems in 1945 that complicated the task of increasing production in other liberated countries. Manpower had been reduced in numbers by deportation and in efficiency by malnutrition and by the workers' adoption generally of techniques for retarding production for the Germans. Other disquieting influences in the industrial labor situation of 1945 and early 1946 were labor hoarding by employers while they awaited raw materials; army recruitment of 87,700 men; attraction of black-market activities; increased governmental employment; internment of collaborators in numbers ranging from 25,000 to 50,000; return of some 250,000 Belgians from former German-held territories; and employment by the Allied Military Authorities of as many as 130,000 Belgians—or about one-tenth of the normal industrial labor force.

Unemployment and labor shortage.—Registered unemployment totaled 325,000 in February 1945, dropped below 100,000 in November, increased by only a few thousand during the winter of 1945–46, and in the first quarter of 1946 fell to the lowest level since liberation—

[1] Prepared by Helen I. Cowan of the Bureau's Staff on Foreign Labor Conditions from reports of R. Smith Simpson, labor attaché at the United States Embassy, Brussels, and recent issues of the Revue du Travail (Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance sociale de Belgique, Brussels).

70,858.[2] To fit available labor for work, retraining was provided under the revised system of unemployment compensation established in May 1945. The shortage of skilled construction workers caused the Government's retraining centers to emphasize work in masonry and carpentry. Employers' retraining efforts developed mainly in the diamond and textile industries. The number of workers occupied in industry, commerce, and agriculture (on the basis of figures from the Family Allowance Funds) dropped 9.5 percent, from 1,593,474 in the third quarter of 1937 to 1,442,177 in the same period of 1945.

The maritime manpower problems of the country were critical. Losses of personnel and shipping were so great during the war that the maritime service had to be rebuilt from the bottom. A pool of seamen and officers was consequently created at Antwerp by decree law of May 12, 1945, and facilities for retraining were developed. Permanent service and long-trip bonuses were included in the collective agreement of 1942 which was still in effect in early 1946. As another inducement, waiting or port pay was later provided for periods when men were ashore, registered in the pool, and available for sailing. Acute labor shortages also developed in the textile, clothing, building and construction, and other industries, and especially in coal mining.

Manpower and production in coal mining.—Belgium's heavy industrial production depends upon the availability of fuel. In 1938, annual monthly production of coal amounted to 2,465,000 metric tons,[3] and the mines employed some 120,000 Belgians as well as 25,000 Polish, Italian, and Czechoslovakian laborers in coal mining. Prewar annual production was sufficient in quantity for domestic needs, but coking coal and other industrial grades were imported and household grades exported.

The coal problem of Belgium in 1945 was largely one of manpower. During the occupation, the number of men working in the mines and production per worker per day declined. Non-Belgian miners imported by the Germans appear to have been carried off during the retreat of 1945. As there had been no replacement of aged by younger Belgian miners in the war years, the Belgian mining industry faced an employment crisis on liberation. The index of coal-mine employment (1936–38=100) dropped to 46 in September 1944, rose to 71 by December, and fell back to 67 in January 1945, as may be seen from table 1.

Extensive propaganda by the Government emphazised the patriotic contribution of increasing coal production, encouraging miners in the industry to remain, and urging others to return. Special legislation improved the social-security legislation for miners.[4] Inequities under the wage increases provided in decrees of April and September 1945[5] were discussed at a meeting of the National Joint (Mixed) Industrial Council for Mines, under the presidency of the Minister of Labor and Social Welfare, on December 14, 1945. As a result the minimum

[2] For detail on unemployment in Belgium, see Monthly Labor Review, February 1946 (p. 197).
[3] Metric ton=2,204.6 pounds.
[4] For detail, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1945 (p. 70).
[5] For detail, see Monthly Labor Review, August 1945 (p. 237) and March 1946 (p. 475).

daily wage for surface laborers was to be 96 francs ($2.11).[6] At the end of the year, miners were receiving an average wage of 125 francs ($2.75) per day, as compared with 48 francs ($1.63) in January 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Employment and Production in Belgian Coal Mines, 1938 to January 1946*

Period	Employment		Production		
				Monthly total	
	Number of workers	Index (1936–38=100)	Daily average per worker (in kilograms)	Amount (in thousands of metric tons)	Index (1936–38=100)
1938	130,339	104	753	2,465	102
1941	125,208	100	696	2,217	92
1942	121,303	97	640	2,077	86
1943	122,390	98	[1] 585	1,979	82
1944:					
June	93,033	74	448	1,088	45
September	57,650	46	211	173	7
December	88,624	71	500	1,092	45
1945:					
January	84,408	67	501	1,037	
March	90,880	73	537	1,322	65
June	90,010	72	547	1,291	53
September	106,308	85	523	1,409	58
December	131,309	105	545	1,732	72
1946:					
January	133,816	107	547	1,944	80

[1] Provisional figure.

Meanwhile coal prices had been fixed at approximately 320 francs ($7.04) per ton at the mine head. Since the mines could not return a profit at these price and wage levels, mine operators were being subsidized by the Government at rates based upon conditions of operation.

In spite of an active recruiting campaign, only a few hundred former Belgian miners were attracted to the mines by January 1946. About 123,000 free miners, practically all Belgians, were at work at the end of 1945. Employment of prisoner-of-war labor began in May 1945, however, and in the first quarter of 1946 the number of German prisoners of war registered at the mines rose to 45,975. The number actually at work fluctuated between 37,000 and 39,000. At the end of 1945, the employment and production indexes (1936–38=100) were 105 and 72, respectively. Nearly one-third of the coal being produced was the result of the labor of prisoners.

As the replacement of prisoner-of-war workers will ultimately become a problem, negotiations for the immigration of free laborers—Polish, Italian, and Swiss—were undertaken. Before the war nearly 25 percent of the Belgian mine labor force was foreign. In the first quarter of 1946, some 600 Italians and 480 Swiss laborers were imported for the coal mines. Belgian citizens who had been convicted of collaboration with the Germans were also being put to work in the mines.

Employment in electrical, gas, steel, and other industries.—The only indications of employment in other industries are the indexes of pro-

[6] For the purpose of this report, prewar Belgian wages were converted at the rate of 3.4 cents for 1 Belgian franc in the period 1936–44 and at the rate of 2.2 cents for the period after liberation in 1944. Use of the foreign exchange rate, however, does not give an accurate measure of the relative purchasing power of money as between countries, but information is not available showing the relative living cost in the United States and Belgium.

duction. These show strides similar to those made in coal employment and production. By December 1945, the production index (1936–38=100) for electricity had risen from a low of 69 in February 1945 to 120; for gas from 21 in February to 100 (in November); in steel (*acier brut*) from 3 in January to 52; in margarine from 41 in February to 102; and in sugar from 51 in February to 61.

Wage Rates

Prewar characteristics.—At the beginning of 1936, average hourly rates for skilled labor ranged from approximately 4 francs (14 cents) in the textile industry to almost 7 francs (24 cents) in transportation In the course of the year, average hourly rates increased: for skilled laborers in woodworking, from 5.18 to 5.50 francs (18 to 19 cents); in coal mining, from 5.14 to 5.65 francs (18 to 19 cents); in the tobacco industry, from 4.69 to 5.32 francs (16 to 18 cents); and in the food industry from 4.93 to 5.28 francs (17 to 18 cents). The rising trend in wages continued until 1939. It was then accepted practice to relate wages to an official cost-of-living index which was used, although it was criticized, by employers and workers, in collective bargaining in the joint industrial councils.[7]

The occupation period.—During the occupation, wages were frozen by the German authorities at levels prevailing on May 10, 1940, and later, in May 1941, at rates 8 percent higher than in the previous year. Because of the black market, these official wage changes met the cost of living so inadequately that many employers ignored the wage ceilings and paid twice the official rate.

Post-occupation trends.—After liberation, unavoidable dislocations caused an increasing gap between wages and cost of living. The returned Government met constant pressure from certain labor unions for wage increases to close this gap. Socialist and Christian labor union leaders (see pp. 33 and 34), however, opposed wage increases, because they feared inflation and a consequent crippling of Belgian ability to recapture its export trade.

Up to March 1946, the Government had yielded to rank-and-file demands for higher wages only twice. In April 1945, a 60-percent increase was required over May 1940 levels, and again in September 1945 a further over-all increase of 20 percent was granted retroactive to August 1, 1945. Minimum hourly pay fixed in the legislation of September was 7.20 francs (16 cents) for female workers, 9.60 francs (21 cents) for unskilled male labor, and 12 francs (26 cents) for skilled male labor. This legislation set wage rates at a level 92 percent above the 1940 levels.

The wage rates actually paid to skilled labor in specified industries in March and June 1945, as well as in the year 1936, were as follows:

	Hourly wage rates (in francs)		
	1936	*March 1945*	*June 1945*
Metallurgical industry	5. 47–6. 17	12. 56	13. 03
Glass industry	6. 16–6. 47	10. 35	11. 50
Construction industry	5. 06–5. 31	12. 60	12. 81
Chemical industry	4. 55–4. 93	11. 08	11. 85
Textile industry	3. 97–4. 32	10. 17	10. 52

[7] For detail on joint industrial councils, see Monthly Labor Review, December 1945 (p. 1169).

From 1936 to 1945, money rates increased 86 to 138 percent in the higher-paid industries and 162 to 164 percent in the lower-paid industries. Some firms reported in late 1945 that their money wage rates were two and one-half times prewar rates.

Social-security benefits were enlarged greatly after liberation and these, together with the benefits provided by the employer-supported workers Reequipment Fund, helped to reduce pressure for higher wages. By the spring of 1946, however, the dissatisfaction of labor groups with the relation between rising prices and stabilized wages had increased so greatly that strikes were threatened. After conferences with labor-union representatives in May, the Government agreed to enforce drastic cuts in official prices of food, textiles, footwear, and other consumer goods, railway fares, domestic coal, and electricity, as a basis for continuing its wage-stabilization program. In return for acceptance of the continued wage freeze, labor also asked a 20-percent increase in old-age and family allowances, the publication of a cost-of-living index beginning with June 1, formal Government and employer approval of labor-management committees, and a voice in the development of general economic policy.

Cost of Living

In March 1946, it was impossible to compare prewar with current real wages, because conditions were still regarded as too abnormal to permit the reconstruction of a cost-of-living index. The existing Government price-fixing program originated in a decree of January 22, 1945 (superseding a decree of October 27, 1939), which had experienced limited success, until in the last half of the year vigorous steps were taken against price violators and wages were raised moderately.

In the absence of other measurements of changes in the cost of living, the prices of 27 essential food products were computed for 1936–38, April 1940, and February 1946, on the basis of the monthly ration per person during the period from February 10 to March 11, 1946. The quantities rationed in 1946 were not necessarily those consumed in 1936–38 or 1940, and these quantities were not always available in 1946 at the prices given. Calculating on the basis explained, however, the monthly cost of these food products to an "average person" at official prices in February and March 1946 was 206.6 percent higher than the cost of the same foods in 1936–38, and 178.9 percent higher than in April 1940 before the fall of Belgium to the Germans. For a family of 4 persons with 2 children of 2 and 13 years (who are entitled to special milk rations), increases in current prices were still greater—211.8 percent compared with 1936–38 and 183.1 percent compared with April 1940.

Social-Security Benefits

Benefits provided by the Belgian social-security system represented a stabilizing factor insofar as the labor market, prices, and wages are concerned. After liberation, the legislation for general wage earners, miners, and seamen was modernized by decrees which authorized increases in old-age and survivors' pensions and in family allowances,

the establishment of compulsory sickness, invalidity, and unemployment insurance, and an improved type of paid vacations.[8] Wage earners contribute to their respective systems at the rate of 8 percent of wages and employers at rates ranging from 15.5 to 21.5 percent of pay roll.

Rates of family allowances for wage earners were raised in December 1944 to 115 francs ($2.53) a month each for the first and second child and larger amounts for the third and other children. To offset rising living costs, decrees of January 30 and February 5, 1945, increased old-age, survivors', and invalids' pensions by 50 percent and orphans' pensions by 100 percent. In March, the benefit rates for sickness and invalidity were liberalized, so that the insured would receive 60 percent of lost pay for a period up to 300 days and 50 percent thereafter.

National Fund for Reequipment of Workers and Their Households

Subsidized consumption for the postwar reequipment of workers and their households was another measure adopted to ease the pressing needs of the workers for clothing and housefurnishings, pending the establishment of a satisfactory relationship between prices and wages. The idea of helping workers reequip themselves after the war by money-wage increases only was rejected because of the belief that increased purchasing power in a period of scarcity would cause a rise in prices, a further development of the black market, and serious inflation. Therefore, under terms of a decree of November 15, 1945, workers covered by the social-security and unemployment-insurance systems were to be assisted by subsidies in kind, thereby strengthening the Government's wage stabilization program.

Financing the benefits.—Goods were to be made available by means of ration coupons, of a value and duration to be determined by the Fund and the Ministers of Finance and Economic Affairs. With the approval of the Minister of Finance, the Reequipment Fund was authorized to borrow up to 6 billion francs (132 million dollars) for not more than 15 years. This expenditure was to be met by an annual tax not to exceed 1.5 percent on pay roll as defined in the existing social-security tax laws.

In spite of hopes that the system inaugurated by the Fund would strengthen the wage-price stabilization program, some people attributed the cost-of-living and black-market crises of the spring of 1946 partially to lack of control of the production stimulated by the Reequipment Fund.

Hygiene and Safety in Commercial and Industrial Establishments

A program for the promotion of hygiene and safety in commercial and industrial establishments (excluding mining) was developed in a decree of February 11, 1946, to help solve the problem of industrial diseases and accidents which arose with the resumption of economic

[8] Further detail on the system is given in Monthly Labor Review, July 1945 (pp. 67–71) and November 1945 (pp. 949–952).

activity after liberation. The decree outlined only the general framework for the administration of the system; provision was to be made, by later decrees, for safety and health regulations, for a Superior Council on Safety and Hygiene (under the presidency of the director of the Labor Ministry's Technical Organization), and for other matters.

Safety and hygiene service and committees.—Regardless of the numbers employed, each establishment was required to organize a safety and hygiene service, with members to be named by management. This service was to supervise hygiene, educate the workers in safety, examine tools and equipment, recommend measures to prevent accidents, and report annually to the Ministry of Labor. The safety and hygiene service, in establishments which employed more than 50 workers, was to be assisted by one or more committees consisting of representatives of management and personnel.

The original decree provided that regional committees were to be created later to supervise the application of the legislation in their region. These regional committees were also to function as safety and hygiene committees for establishments which employed fewer than 50 workers each. Although the organization for safety and hygiene defined in the decree has been criticized as complex, it provides for the use of the joint committee system familiar in Belgian industrial relations, for certain links with the Ministry of Labor, and for regional committees which may be a useful innovation in safety legislation for the smaller establishments.

Industrial Relations

Joint industrial councils law.—Legislation on industrial relations during 1945 included a decree law of June 9 which placed under national law the system of joint industrial councils which developed in Belgium after World War I and disappeared during the occupation. The revival of the councils after liberation permitted the solution of difficult problems concerning working conditions in a spirit of mutual understanding. Interested employer and worker organizations or the Government may request the creation of national and regional joint councils in various branches of industry, commerce, or agriculture.

The councils are (1) to fix wages or remuneration for personnel, particularly in connection with collective agreements, (2) to consult upon working conditions, including those which should be made obligatory by shop rules, (3) to assist the Government in the preparation and execution of social legislation, (4) to prevent and conciliate disputes, and (5) to encourage apprenticeship and close relations with vocational training institutions.

Discussion of labor management committees.—A controversial subject in industrial relations in Belgium in early 1946 was the proposed creation of factory councils or labor management committees (*conseils d'entreprise*). While the General Federation of Labor (FGT) was reported to be developing its case in support of the committees, the manufacturers' association (*Comité Central Industriel*) appeared to be working for a compromise on the functions of the committees. Information on the Government's final policy regarding the committees was not available at the time of writing.

Industrial disputes, 1945 and spring 1946.—According to figures published by the Government, and shown in table 2, the number of days of idleness because of strikes and lock-outs in the first 11 months of 1945 was 535,914, as contrasted with 240,937 in the 12 months of the last whole prewar year, 1938. In 1937, however, days similarly lost amounted to some 647,000.

Industrial relations improved, during the latter part of 1945, as the labor-union movement reorganized to meet the postwar situation, as wages were increased and collective bargaining went forward, as more food became available, and as the social-security and other programs benefiting the worker got under way.

After September 1, 1945, the cause of most strikes was the demand for higher wages to bridge the gap between price and wage levels. In the 1-month strike of streetcar workers in Liége, increases in wage rates were avoided by granting the workers lump-sum payments of 1,000 francs ($22), 800 francs ($17.60), and 500 francs ($11). A strike for wage increases to buy new clothing for workers in the electric-power industry in January 1946 was settled similarly. With Government approval, the employers reimbursed the workers for clothing purchases at the rate of 10 francs (22 cents) per clothing coupon for each male, and smaller amounts per coupon for wife and children. Until mid-March 1946, the workers' success in obtaining wage adjustments in firms and localities where lower-than-average wages were paid and the distribution of coupons for clothing and shoes from the Reequipment Fund also tended to continue easy industrial relationships.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes and Lock-Outs in Belgium, 1938 and 1945*

Month	Number of establishments affected, 1945	Number of workers participating, 1945	Number of days of work lost	
			1945	1938
January	41	18,964	71,774	7,623
February	33	15,514	53,880	22,784
March	17	3,536	11,192	31,265
April	20	10,944	57,656	20,601
May	59	30,722	92,446	24,226
June	18	8,199	8,969	21,570
July	45	5,758	66,129	20,584
August	15	31,157	96,346	27,361
September	20	6,949	32,928	58,479
October	5	2,149	19,683	4,222
November	19	10,074	24,911	546
December	11	2,751	27,259	1,676

Membership and Development of Trade-Unions

Membership in the reconstructed Belgian trade-unions was nearing 900,000 by November 1945, with 452,129 members reported for the General Federation of Labor (FGT), 360,775 for the Confederation of Christian Unions (CSC), and almost 59,000 for the Central Union of Liberal Trade Unions (CGSL).

General Federation of Labor.—Unification of the Communist and Socialist unions which make up the FGT was partially achieved within 6 months after liberation. By the time of its December congress, the FGT had further strengthened its position, both as to membership

and unification. In certain industries, however, including the textile, food, etc., some important Communist and Socialist unions attached to the FGT had still not been merged, and in others unification appeared to be somewhat tenuous. In the two largest unions, the building and the metallurgical, administration had in general been consolidated. The distribution of the 452,129 members of the FGT is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Membership in Belgian General Confederation of Labor, by Industry, December 1945* [1]

Industry	Number of union members	Industry	Number of union members	
			Socialist	Communist
Merger completed	277,220	Merger not completed	118,505	56,404
Building	81,379	Textile	41,347	10,360
Metallurgy	79,788	Mining	31,985	29,314
Civil servants	70,000	Transportation	23,786	2,373
Employees	16,973	Stone	7,757	6,216
Tramway	13,314	Food	6,385	2,138
Diamond	7,007	Leather	4,304	1,386
Book	5,937	Clothing	2,941	1,344
Tobacco	2,718	Frontier		3,273
Hat	104			

[1] Based on dues-paying records.

Confederation of Christian Unions.—The reconstruction of the Confederation of Christian Unions was carried out so quickly that by November 31, 1945, its membership had surpassed the prewar total by some 16,000 and stood at 360,775. The concentration of the Christian trade-unions in the Flemish population, a natural unity of ideology, and the maintenance of inter-union relationships during the war, all favored the speedy reconstruction of this confederation.

Eleven of the fifteen affiliated national unions of the Confederation of Christian Unions were in the following industries: Chemical and leather; diamond; printing and paper; wood and building; transportation; national railways, telegraphs, telephones, and radio; textile; metallurgical; mining; stone and cement; and food, tobacco, agriculture, and hotel. Of the other 4 affiliated unions, 1 was composed of "employees," not specified; 2 of teacher groups; and 1 of public administration workers.

The Central Union of Liberal Unions.—The Central Union had not increased in strength since the war. Membership at the beginning of 1946 was probably less than 59,000.

Labor-Union Policies

At the FGT congress in December 1945, trade-union leaders (with the exception of the Communists) were pressing for a reduction in price levels rather than for a rise in wage rates. Their stand was strengthened by a Government announcement that prices of textiles, shoes, and certain household goods would be decreased 25 percent, effective January 31.

Both the FGT and the CSC favored the establishment of labor management committees in factories. At their urging, the Government appointed a subcommittee to explore the subject. The meeting held by this subcommittee in January 1946 was not well attended by the employer members.

More than 21 Belgian Government commissions and agencies had provided for some labor representation in their membership by 1946. These agencies included the National Office of Social Security, National Fund for Sickness and Invalidity Insurance, Commission of Food Supply, Technical Commission for Professional Classification, Commission on Family Allowances, General Joint Industrial Council, Technical Committee for Industrial Diseases, Administrative Council of the Belgian National Railway Co., Consultative Commission for Problems of White Collar Workers, and Labor Consultative Commission of the Ministry of Economic Affairs.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wartime Wages, Income, and Wage Regulation in Agriculture[1]

PART 1.—FARM WAGES AND LABOR COST

FARM wage rates, which lagged appreciably behind nonfarm wages prior to 1939, made unprecedented gains during the war period. Labor shortages, due to military requirements and to industrial competition for manpower, accounted for much of the increase. An additional cause was the rise of farm incomes and prices resulting from the unsatiated demand for farm products.

The composite farm wage rate for the United States as a whole rose 192 percent from $29.40 per month in January 1940 to $85.90 in January 1946. The greatest gains occurred in the West North Central, West South Central, and Pacific regions. The smallest increase was realized in New England. Piece rates for picking seed cotton in 16 major cotton-producing States rose more in the war period than did the general farm rates in all but 5 of the less important cotton-growing States.

The farm wage bill as a proportion of total production expenses of farm operators rose from 17 percent in 1935–39 to 19 percent in 1944, approaching the ratio of 20 percent that existed in the parity base period, 1910–14. Cash wages increased at a more rapid rate than did the payment of perquisites.

Farm Wage Rates by Regions and Types of Payment

Farm wage rates per day and per month, with and without board—the four types of farm wage payments for which the Bureau of Agricultural Economics publishes quarterly figures—climbed to peak levels over the war period in every region of the Nation. Labor shortages, an unsatiated demand for farm products, rising farm prices and income, and increased productivity in agriculture, all contributed to the unprecedented rise in farm wages.[2]

Although the relative increases in farm wage rates during the war far exceeded the general rise in nonfarm rates, the gains of agricultural

[1] Prepared by Marilyn Sworzyn, under the direction of Witt Bowden, of the Bureau's Labor Economics Staff. Reliance has been placed principally upon data published or made available by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the Production and Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture. The cooperation of those agencies is gratefully acknowledged.

Part 2, Comparative Wages and Wage Regulation, to appear in the August issue of the Review, shows the trends of farm wages in comparison with those of the incomes of family workers and the wages of nonfarm workers. It will also outline wage stabilization in agriculture and the regulation of sugar-beet wages under the Sugar Act of 1937.

[2] Approximately three-fourths of farm workers are family workers who, as members of the families of farm operators, do not work for wages. This article discusses primarily the wages of hired workers.

labor must be viewed against the background of relatively low wage rates in 1939 as compared with rates in many major nonagricultural pursuits. Farm wage rates, which soared during World War I and reached a new high in 1920, were seriously deflated in 1921. Although there was some recovery between 1923 and 1929, the depression of the early 1930's forced rates down to levels almost as low as those of the early 1900's. Nonagricultural wage rates by 1939 had generally risen above predepression levels, but agricultural wages remained appreciably below those of 1929 and lagged considerably behind most nonagricultural rates.

During 1939, approximately four-fifths of all cash wages of farm laborers in the United States were paid on a time basis (by the month, week, or day), and the remaining fifth on a piecework basis. About 42 percent of the amount of cash wages was paid to laborers hired on a daily or weekly basis, and 38 percent to laborers hired on a monthly basis. Although the proportions of the 1939 cash farm wage bill paid by different methods varied considerably among regions, the time basis was the predominant method of payment in every geographic area. Laborers hired by the month received more than half of the wages paid on a time basis in 4 of the geographic divisions, the East and West North Central, Middle Atlantic, and Mountain States. In the other 5 divisions, over half went to laborers hired by the day or week. In the 3 Southern divisions, cotton and tobacco with their sharp but irregular labor demands cause the greatest amount of hiring on a time basis for periods shorter than a month.

Table 1 shows farm wage rates in January 1940 and January 1946 for the United States as a whole and by regions for four types of wage payments reported on a time basis. Daily rates, as reported, are affected by piece rates, because the Bureau of Agricultural Economics requests its reporters to make estimates of the daily earnings of piece-rate workers and to include these estimates of earnings as rates per day, with or without board.

Farm wage rates per day without board rose from an average of $1.55 in January 1940 to $4.40 by January 1946. The rates ranged from a low of $1.03 in January 1940 and $2.79 in January 1946 in the East South Central region to a high of $2.70 in January 1940 and $7.67 in January 1946 in the Pacific area. The increase between January 1940 and January 1946 averaged 184 percent. The greatest advance—222 percent—occurred in the West South Central States, a region which ranked the second lowest in rates paid in January 1940. Other increases ranged from 190 percent in the West North Central States to as low as 106 percent in New England.

During the same period farm wage rates per month without board rose 170 percent, as compared with 184 percent for wages per day without board. The average rate per month in January 1946 was $95.30 as contrasted to $35.27 in January 1940. New England, where the average rate paid is relatively high, again ranked lowest in percentage increase (117 percent). The greatest rise—209 percent—occurred in the West North Central States.

An appreciable portion of the income of farm workers lies outside the market economy. Monetary wage payments frequently are augmented by nonmonetary payments or perquisites. These may include board and lodging, all meals or only certain meals, housing with or without

gardening privileges, and fuel, vegetables, milk, tobacco, or other farm products. Practices relating to perquisites show great regional variation. The high proportion of Negroes among farm laborers in the South, for example, has an effect on the nature of the perquisites provided there. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics estimates the value of perquisites in 1944 as 16 percent of total wage payments.

TABLE 1.—*Changes in Farm Wage Rates, by Region and by Type of Payment, January 1940 to January 1946* [1]

Region	Rate per day			Rate per month		
	January 1940	January 1946	Percent of increase	January 1940	January 1946	Percent of increase
	With board					
United States	$1.22	$3.76	208.2	$25.33	$80.20	216.6
New England	1.73	4.08	135.8	31.75	83.20	162.0
Middle Atlantic	1.61	4.09	154.0	27.46	74.20	170.2
East North Central	1.48	4.06	174.3	25.80	73.70	185.7
West North Central	1.24	4.23	241.1	22.32	77.50	247.2
South Atlantic	.88	2.74	211.4	16.76	47.80	185.2
East South Central	.79	2.21	179.7	15.93	39.80	149.8
West South Central	.93	3.21	245.2	18.35	60.80	231.3
Mountain	1.59	4.69	195.0	33.69	102.00	202.8
Pacific	1.92	6.32	229.2	40.30	137.00	240.0
	Without board					
United States	$1.55	$4.40	183.9	$35.27	$95.30	170.2
New England	2.55	5.25	105.9	56.31	122.00	116.7
Middle Atlantic	2.21	5.01	126.7	43.56	106.00	143.3
East North Central	1.97	4.92	149.7	37.94	100.00	163.6
West North Central	1.77	5.14	190.4	33.33	103.00	209.0
South Atlantic	1.20	3.40	183.3	25.08	65.20	160.0
East South Central	1.03	2.79	170.9	22.99	53.90	134.4
West South Central	1.19	3.83	221.8	27.01	81.80	202.9
Mountain	2.14	5.54	158.9	48.55	134.00	176.0
Pacific	2.70	7.67	184.1	65.78	174.00	164.5

[1] Compiled from data in Farm Labor, issue of Jan. 11, 1946, and Farm Wage Rates, Farm Employment, and Related Data (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, 1943, mimeographed).

The statistics of farm wage rates by type of payment include wages with board,[3] but the value of the perquisite is not included in the rate. Workers who receive board, as well as those who do not, may have perquisites other than board. For these reasons, only a very general comparison is possible between different types of wage payments.

Farm wage rates with board increased more during the war than wages without board. The fact that farmers who hired workers on the basis of including board had to increase their money payments more than farmers who hired workers without board appears to indicate a decline in the relative value of board as an element of compensation.

[3] The term "board" is not defined in the questionnaire of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics used by its correspondents in reporting farm wage-rate statistics by type of payment, but it presumably includes lodging when meals are accompanied by lodging. Special surveys of wages and wage rates in agriculture begun in 1945, give detailed information regarding the proportions of workers, both regular and seasonal, who are furnished with housing, with lodging, and with meals. In May 1945, 47 percent of regular farm workers were furnished with houses, 29 percent with lodging, and 36 percent with 2 or more regular meals. About one-third were furnished with both meals and houses or lodging. See Survey of Wages and Wage Rates in Agriculture, Report No. 7, February 1946 (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics).

The increases in farm wage rates per day with board from January 1940 to January 1946 average 208 percent as compared with an increase of 184 percent in rates per day without board. The increases ranged from a high of 245 percent in the West South Central region to a low of 136 percent in New England. Farm wage rates per day with board rose from an average of $1.22 in January 1940 to $3.76 in January 1946.

Farm wage rates per month with board more than tripled between January 1940 and January 1946, rising 217 percent, from $25.33 to $80.20, and significantly outdistancing the gain in monthly rates without board. The increases ranged from a low of 150 percent in the East South Central area to a high of 247 percent in the West North Central region.

It should be noted that the January level of farm wage rates is not entirely representative of the annual level because of considerable seasonal variations. This was evident, for example, in the year 1939, when only slight changes other than seasonal variations occurred. The levels for that year, for January, and for the other reporting periods (April, July, and October) are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Quarterly Variations in Farm Wage Rates in the United States, 1939*[1]

Year and month	Farm wage rates				
	Per month—		Per day—		Weighted average (composite) rate per month
	With board	Without board	With board	Without board	
1939:					
Year	$27.39	$35.82	$1.30	$1.56	$30.56
January	24.86	34.92	1.20	1.53	29.03
April	27.08	35.42	1.23	1.53	30.03
July	28.18	36.26	1.36	1.59	31.23
October	28.28	36.13	1.35	1.57	31.13
1940: January	25.33	35.27	1.22	1.55	29.40

[1] Farm Wage Rates, Farm Employment, and Related Data (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics), pp. 4, 40.

The differences in rates as reported for 1939 (from January to October) appear to have been almost entirely seasonal. The January 1940 averages are slightly higher than those for January 1939, indicating a nonseasonal rise which appears to have occurred toward the end of 1939.

Interregional rate differences increased during the war. In January 1940, rates were lowest in the East South Central States and highest in the Pacific States. The percentage increases in all four types of rates by January 1946 were larger in the Pacific States than in the East South Central region, the rise in the rate per day with board, for example, averaging 229 percent in the former and only 180 percent in the latter region. The general (composite) wage rate rose, during the same period, 196 percent in the Pacific area and only 154 percent in the East South Central States. One cause of the greater rise in the Pacific States was the relatively large dependence of farmers in that region on hired farm labor during a period of sharp decline in the labor supply and of rising demand for labor.

Regional differences in average farm wage levels are in part a result of differences in types of agriculture. They also are affected by area differences in the location and development of various industries with varying levels of wages, in the population and labor supply, and in the institutions, traditions, and customs of the various population groups. Differences as significant as those discernible between regions often prevail within an area by size, type, and value of farm and by nature of farm products.[4]

Composite Farm Wage Rates by State and Region

Composite farm wage rates [5] for the country as a whole rose, on the average, 192 percent, or from $29.40 to $85.90, between January 1940 and January 1946. Composite wage rates viewed by States (table 3) show extensive interstate variation in the actual level of farm wages as well as the percentage increases in rates over the period. Rates were lowest in South Carolina and highest in California, with the differences greater in January 1946 than prior to the war. In January 1946, the composite rate paid in South Carolina was $41.90 per month, in contrast to $152.00 in California. Over the 6-year period, farm wage rates in South Carolina rose 166 percent in comparison with a rise of 178 percent in California. Both of these increases were appreciably less than the rise of 192 percent for the country as a whole.

Composite rates in the New England region as a whole, and in the States of Massachusetts and Connecticut in particular, showed the smallest percentage increases over the period. In 1940, these two States were near the top in level of wages paid. The largest increase (311 percent) occurred in North Dakota. In January 1940, the North Dakota average of $21.00 was significantly below the national average of $29.40, but wartime increases raised the average to $86.40, slightly above the national average of $85.90.

Changes in Real Wages

There is no satisfactory measure of the change in real wages of hired farm workers. The index of consumers' prices as constructed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics relates primarily to prices paid by moderate-income families in large cities; and the index of prices paid for items used in living as constructed by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics applies primarily to the families of farm operators and does not include rents and services. Both indexes have reflected only in part the wartime effects of changes in quality and availability of goods.

It is apparent, however, that the increase in the composite farm wage rate over the war period was markedly greater than the rise in

[4] See Wages of Agricultural Labor in the United States, by Louis J. Ducoff (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1945.) This study is the major source of general background data used elsewhere in this article.

[5] Weighted average of monthly and daily farm wage rates with and without board. The daily rates were converted to a monthly basis.

Composite farm wage rates are an approximate but significant measure of the trend of farm wages, but because of the extreme diversity of the wage rates that enter into the composite and the exclusion of the value of perquisites, this rate has limited validity, according to the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, as a measure of actual wage levels. The constant employment weights used in assigning relative importance to each of the four types of payments for deriving the composite rate are those of 1925 and they therefore do not reflect any shifts in the relative importance of the different types of payment since that date. In the absence of employment data for States by types of payment, regional weights have been used, although considerable differences no doubt exist among the several States of a given regional division. In addition, piece rates are much less adequately represented than are time rates.

TABLE 3.—*Changes in Composite Farm Wage Rates, by State and Region, January 1940 to January 1946* [1]

State and region	Composite wage rate [2]			State and region	Composite wage rate [2]		
	January 1940	January 1946	Percent of increase		January 1940	January 1946	Percent of increase
United States	$29.40	$85.90	192.2	South Atlantic—Con.			
New England	45.80	103.00	124.9	Virginia	$26.00	$66.00	153.8
Maine	39.50	104.00	163.3	West Virginia	26.75	59.80	123.6
New Hampshire	46.75	111.00	137.4	North Carolina	22.00	60.70	175.9
Vermont	39.50	95.30	141.3	South Carolina	15.75	41.90	166.0
Massachusetts	49.25	102.00	107.1	Georgia	16.00	46.20	188.8
Rhode Island	52.25	125.00	139.2	Florida	21.50	72.10	235.3
Connecticut	50.00	106.00	112.0	East South Central	19.80	50.30	154.0
Middle Atlantic	35.60	89.40	151.1	Kentucky	24.25	58.50	141.2
New York	35.25	96.40	173.5	Tennessee	19.75	48.40	145.1
New Jersey	40.25	103.00	155.9	Alabama	16.75	45.80	173.4
Pennsylvania	34.25	77.90	127.4	Mississippi	17.50	49.20	181.1
East North Central	31.70	85.80	170.7	West South Central	23.20	73.90	218.5
Ohio	30.50	76.60	151.1	Arkansas	19.25	58.60	204.4
Indiana	32.50	78.90	142.8	Louisiana	20.00	51.30	156.5
Illinois	35.00	92.50	164.3	Oklahoma	25.75	84.70	228.9
Michigan	31.75	87.80	176.5	Texas	24.75	81.90	230.9
Wisconsin	29.00	89.10	207.2	Mountain	36.00	105.00	191.7
Minnesota	25.00	83.70	234.8	Montana	36.50	113.00	209.6
West North Central	25.80	85.60	231.8	Idaho	36.25	133.00	266.9
Iowa	29.75	95.00	219.3	Wyoming	35.50	109.00	207.0
Missouri	23.00	67.50	193.5	Colorado	30.75	98.00	218.7
North Dakota	21.00	86.40	311.4	New Mexico	28.50	74.30	160.7
South Dakota	24.50	93.60	282.0	Arizona	37.00	107.00	189.2
Nebraska	25.25	95.90	279.8	Utah	43.75	111.00	153.7
Kansas	26.25	89.50	241.0	Nevada	42.25	110.00	160.4
South Atlantic	21.60	59.80	176.9	Pacific	50.60	150.00	196.4
Delaware	32.50	81.00	149.2	Washington	41.25	144.00	249.1
Maryland	32.75	83.50	155.0	Oregon	40.75	138.00	238.7
				California	54.75	152.00	177.6

[1] Compiled from data in Farm Labor, issue of May 1946, and Farm Wage Rates, Farm Employment, and Related Data (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Washington, 1943, mimeographed).

[2] Weighted average of monthly and daily farm wage rates with and without board. The daily rates were converted to a monthly basis.

prices. A rough approximation of the rise in the real farm wage rate from 1939 to 1945 (the wage-rate index adjusted by the index of living costs of farm families) is 85 percent. In this connection, however, it is quite important to note the serious lag in 1939 in the real as well as in the money wages of hired farm workers. The average output of farm labor as a whole rose almost 50 percent from the parity base period (1910–14)[6] to 1939; but the estimated real wage rate of hired farm workers in 1939 was approximately the same as from 1910 to 1914. During the same period, as will be indicated later, the wages of nonfarm workers far outdistanced those of hired farm workers.

Wages of Piece-Rate Workers

In 1939, approximately 20 percent of all cash wages paid to farm laborers in the United States were paid on a piecework basis, including contract work. The importance of piece rates varied significantly between regions. In the two northeastern divisions, wages to laborers

[6] The parity policy as embodied in acts of Congress is designed to maintain farm prices and the per capita net income of farmers from farming on an approximate "parity" with nonfarm prices and income in terms of the 1910–14 relationships.

hired on a piecework or contract basis were less than 10 percent of all wages paid, whereas in the West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific divisions, this type of payment accounted for about 30 percent of the cash wage bill. Cotton picking in the South (usually paid for by the hundredweight), sugar-beet work in the Mountain, Pacific, and other States (customarily paid on a per-acre or per-ton basis to contract labor), and vegetable, fruit, and other specialized farming operations on the West Coast, account for the higher proportion of the wage bill going for piecework or contract labor in these regions.

Comprehensive data on piece rates are compiled regularly for cotton picking and minimum rates are issued each year for the growing and harvesting of sugar beets. Increases in cotton-picking rates between October 1939 and October 1945 were greater (with the exception of five less-important cotton-growing States) than advances in the general or composite farm wage rate in the same States (table 4). Sugar-beet rates under the Sugar Act of 1937 rose much less than the general rate, but the rates as reported are the minimum as determined under the act, and labor shortages after 1939 have caused some growers to pay rates above the minimum. Sugar-beet wages will be discussed in part 2, in connection with wage controls.

TABLE 4.—*Comparison of Average Rates for Picking Seed Cotton With Composite Farm Wage Rates in Principal Cotton-Producing States, 1939 and 1945* [1]

State	Average wage rate for picking 100 pounds of seed cotton		Composite farm wage rate [2]		Percent of increase in—	
	1939	1945	October 1939	October 1945	Cotton-picking rate	Composite farm wage rate
Missouri	$0.75	$2.05	$25.25	$69.50	173	175
Virginia	.60	2.20	27.00	63.60	267	136
North Carolina	.60	2.30	22.25	60.00	283	170
South Carolina	.50	1.75	15.75	41.30	250	162
Georgia	.50	1.70	16.00	45.40	240	184
Florida	.60	1.75	23.00	72.10	192	213
Tennessee	.60	1.95	20.75	50.20	225	142
Alabama	.50	1.70	17.00	46.90	240	176
Mississippi	.60	1.95	17.75	48.20	225	172
Arkansas	.60	2.00	20.25	59.30	233	193
Louisiana	.55	1.80	20.25	52.20	227	158
Oklahoma	.65	1.90	27.00	89.90	192	233
Texas	.55	1.95	26.00	87.20	255	235
New Mexico	.65	1.95	31.75	82.60	200	160
Arizona	.90	2.30	39.25	107.00	156	173
California	.85	2.25	56.00	156.00	165	179

[1] Compiled from data in Farm Labor, issues of Nov. 13, 1945, and Feb. 12, 1946, and Farm Wage Rates, Farm Employment, and Related Data (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, 1943, mimeographed).

[2] Figures for October for comparison with rates in cotton-picking season

Correspondents who report wage data for the quarterly series of wages per day and per month are directed to include in their estimates of wages per day the "average daily earnings of piece workers." It is recognized by the Department of Agriculture that the results which can be achieved with available statistical resources may fail to reflect adequately the rates of pieceworkers. In so far, however, as the

rates per day were influenced by the inclusion of estimated daily earnings of piece-rate workers, it appears that the general rise in piece rates was no greater than the general rise in time rates; the composite rate rose 183 percent between 1939 and 1945, and the rate per day without board (including a large part of equivalent daily earnings of piece-rate workers) advanced only 178 percent. Rates per month and per day with board both rose more than the corresponding rates without board, indicating not a relative rise in piece rates, but rather in cash payments by farmers who also supplied perquisites.

Farm Wages in Relation to Production Expenses of Farm Operators

The total cash wages and perquisites of hired farm labor as a share of the total production expenses of farm operators rose from 17 percent in 1935–39 to 19 percent in 1944 (table 5). The wage bill advanced 126 percent; other production costs, 87 percent; and total production costs, 93 percent.

TABLE 5.—*Farm Wages as Production Expenses, 1910–14, 1935–39, and 1944* [1]

Item	Amount (in millions)			Percentage distribution of—					
				All production expenses			Wages		
	Average, 1910–14	Average, 1935–39	1944	Average, 1910–14	Average, 1935–39	1944	Average, 1910–14	Average, 1935–39	1944
Total production expenses	$3,858	$5,576	$10,783	100	100	100			
Total wage bill	783	928	2,094	20	17	19	100	100	100
Cash wages	550	722	1,760	14	13	16	70	78	84
To persons living on farms	369	491	1,197				47	53	57
To persons not living on farms	181	231	563				23	25	27
Perquisites	233	206	334	6	4	3	30	22	16
To persons living on farms	192	170	275				25	18	13
To persons not living on farms	41	36	59				5	4	3
Other production expenses	3,075	4,648	8,689	80	83	81			

[1] Net Income and parity Report: 1943, and Farm Income Situation, issue of June 1945, Net Income and Parity: 1940–44 (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington).

The wartime ratio of farm wages to total production expenses approximates the ratio that prevailed in the parity base period of 1910–14. During the intervening years, however, wages as a proportion of production expenses declined, falling to 13 percent in the depression year 1932, before an upturn occurred. Wage costs have thus comprised a relatively variable proportion of total production expenses and have tended to contract in times of depression relatively more than other production expenses and to expand at a greater rate in times of prosperity.

The declining relative importance of perquisities as a component of the wages of hired farm workers, suggested in an earlier section,

appears to be further substantiated by a study of the farm wage bill. Cash wages to hired farm labor rose 144 percent over the war period in contrast to a rise of only 62 percent in perquisites. Cash wages as a proportion of the total wage bill amounted to 78 percent in 1935–39 but to 84 percent in 1944. This trend was a continuation of the earlier movement: cash wages from 1910 to 1914 averaged only 70 percent of total wages. In terms of the declining importance of perquisities, these noncash wages fell from 30 percent of the total in the parity base period to 22 percent in the years 1935–39 and declined further to 16 percent in 1944.

Recent Developments in Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing[1]

DURING the war period, average hourly earnings in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry rose considerably, but the increases were not as great as in all manufacturing industries combined. After 1943, substantial overtime hours and wartime adjustments permitted by the National War Labor Board were largely responsible for maintaining average weekly earnings at approximately the same level as in all manufacturing industries. In March 1946, average hourly earnings established a record for the industry, outstripping comparable earnings in all manufacturing industries combined and in the food industries group. Also, both average hourly and average weekly earnings for production workers in the industry exceeded the prewar 1939 levels for an identical workweek by about 53 percent. Employment in March 1946 surpassed the 1939 level by 22 percent.

Analysis of reports from slaughtering and meat-packing establishments to the Bureau of Labor Statistics for March 1946 reenforce the conclusions as to the improvement in the hours and earnings of packing-house workers, and most of the comments from reporting plants attribute the improvement to wage-rate increases. However, the distributions show wide spreads between minima and maxima in the average hours and earnings of reporting plants. Considerable variation also exists between averages in northern and southern plants.

On the basis of the high demand for the products of the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, it may be anticipated that employment will continue to be maintained at a high level. During the war period, production expanded considerably, and according to preliminary estimates, it is expected that approximately the 1945 level will be maintained in 1946. Civilian demand (without rationing), plus unprecedented export requirements, and continued Government procurement assure the industry of a steady market for meat products. In the civilian market alone, preliminary estimates place per capita consumption of meats in 1946 around 147.0 pounds as compared with 125.6 in the period 1935–39.[2] In addition, repair and remodeling programs, fuller utilization of raw materials and byproducts, involving greater labor requirements, may be expected to add further numbers to the industry pay roll.[3]

Hourly and Weekly Earnings

Postwar employment in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry compared favorably with the 1939 prewar level. In March 1946, approximately 147,000 production workers were on the industry pay roll, as compared with about 120,500 in 1939. Although by March 1946, the average workweek in the industry had contracted to the 1939 prewar level of 40.6 hours, average hourly earnings reached an

[1] Prepared in the Employment Statistics Division of the Bureau's Employment and Occupational Outlook Branch by Ella Joan Polinsky under the direction of Clara F. Schloss.

[2] National Food Situation, April 1946 (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics).

[3] An example of better byproduct utilization would be more careful handling of animal glands for medical preparations. Much of the valuable byproduct is lost through diversion of meat slaughtering through noninspected channels.

all-time high of $1.048, a level almost 53 percent above 1939. Average weekly earnings of $42.56 were not at their peak in March 1946, but like average hourly earnings, the weekly pay exceeded the prewar level by almost 53 percent. (See table 1.)

Comparable earnings in all manufacturing industries combined averaged $1.034 an hour and $42.14 a week, and in the food industries group, $0.944 an hour and $40.50 a week. The earnings advantage of the slaughtering and meat-packing industry is even more striking, taking into account that the workweek was 40.6 hours in March, compared with 40.8 hours in all manufacturing industries combined and 42.9 hours in the food industries group.

In order to evaluate more adequately the significance of the current trends in employment, hours, and earnings in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, and to appraise the dislocations during the war period, the prewar as well as the wartime record of the industry is compared with that in manufacturing industries as a whole. (See table 2.) Except for seasonal fluctuations, average hours and earnings in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry showed little variation from 1937 to 1941. Nevertheless, average hourly earnings exceeded those in all manufacturing industries combined by 4.1 cents in 1937, 6.1 cents in 1938, and 5.3 cents in 1939. In 1940, however, hours and earnings in slaughtering and meat packing continued to maintain approximately the level of the previous 3 years, but increases in the respective averages for all manufacturing industries whittled down the earnings advantage formerly held by packing-house workers to about 2.5 cents an hour. In the war period, the advantage disappeared completely as war production became accelerated and workers shifted from the nondurable goods into the higher-paying durable-goods industries.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Hours, and Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing,*[1] *by Years, 1939–45, and by Months, January–March 1946*

Year or month	Production workers			Weekly earnings		Weekly hours		Hourly earnings	
	Estimated number (thousands)	Indexes (1939 average=100)							
		Employment	Pay rolls	Average	Index (1939=100)	Average	Index (1939=100)	Average	Index (1939=100)
								Cents	
1939	120.5	100.0	100.0	$27.85	100.0	40.6	100.0	68.6	100.0
1940	131.3	109.0	108.1	27.60	99.1	40.2	99.0	68.6	100.0
1941	143.9	119.4	127.1	29.35	105.4	39.6	97.5	74.1	108.0
1942	172.2	142.9	170.5	33.02	118.6	40.9	100.7	80.8	117.8
1943	164.6	136.6	200.1	40.43	145.2	46.5	114.5	87.2	127.1
1944	157.4	130.6	216.1	45.42	163.1	49.5	121.9	92.1	134.3
1945	133.6	110.8	181.7	44.57	160.0	47.5	117.0	94.1	137.2
1946:									
January	152.6	126.7	217.9	46.68	167.6	48.7	120.0	96.1	140.1
February [2]	151.2	125.5	199.4	43.23	155.2	46.1	113.5	93.9	136.9
March [2]	147.0	122.0	191.1	42.56	152.8	40.6	100.0	104.8	152.8

[1] The Census redefinition in 1939 of the slaughtering and meat-packing industry retained the 1937 definition of the "Meat packing, wholesale" and the "Sausage casings" industries, but expanded the coverage of the "Sausage, meat puddings, headcheese, etc.," industry and added "Custom slaughter, wholesale." "Meat packing, wholesale", the most important of the industries, includes establishments engaged in wholesale slaughter and in the preparation of fresh, canned, and cured meats.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics "Slaughtering and meat packing" series corresponds in scope to the 1939 Census industries "Meat packing, wholesale" and "Custom slaughter, wholesale."

[2] Preliminary.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of Hours and Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing[1] with All Manufacturing, by Years, 1937–45, and by Months, January–March 1946*

Year and month	All manufacturing			Slaughtering and meat packing					
							Compared with all manufacturing		
	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
	Cents			*Cents*			*Cents*		
1937	62.4	38.6	$24.05	66.5	41.0	$27.27	+4.1	+2.4	+$3.22
1938	62.7	35.6	22.30	68.8	41.0	28.10	+6.1	+5.4	+5.80
1939	63.3	37.7	23.86	68.6	40.6	27.85	+5.3	+2.9	+3.99
1940	66.1	38.1	25.20	68.6	40.2	27.60	+2.5	+2.1	+2.40
1941	72.9	40.6	29.58	74.1	39.6	29.35	+1.2	−1.0	−.23
1942	85.3	42.9	36.65	80.8	40.9	33.02	−4.5	−2.0	−3.63
1943	96.1	44.9	43.14	87.2	46.5	40.43	−8.9	+1.6	−2.71
1944	101.9	45.2	46.08	92.1	49.5	45.42	−9.8	+4.3	−.66
1945	102.3	43.4	44.41	94.1	47.5	44.57	−8.2	+4.1	+.16
1946:									
January	100.4	41.9	41.15	96.1	48.7	46.68	−4.3	+7.7	+5.53
February [2]	100.1	40.5	40.55	93.9	46.1	43.23	−6.2	+5.6	+2.68
March [2]	103.4	40.8	42.14	104.8	40.6	42.56	+1.4	−.2	+.42

[1] See table 1, footnote 1, for definition of the industry.
[2] Preliminary.

Unlike other nondurable goods industries, slaughtering and meat-packing plants succeeded in increasing meat production in spite of losses in operating personnel. Production of meat products in 1939 was 16.2 billion pounds; in 1943, it had increased to 24.1 billion pounds; and again in 1944, production rose to 24.7 billion pounds. In 1945, when output dropped to 22.9 billion pounds, production was still about 40 percent above the 1935–39 level.[4] At the beginning of the war, a reservoir of suitable manpower was still available, and the number employed expanded to 172,200, the record for the industry. However, from 1943 to the war's end, the industry had to lengthen the workweek appreciably to offset inductions into the armed forces and losses to war industries. From the 1942 employment peak through 1945, about 39,000 production workers left the industry, but the 1945 level of employment was still almost 11 percent above that in 1939.

Wage-Rate Adjustments

Average hourly earnings in 1941 included two general wage increases which were largely adjustments under the "Little Steel" formula of the War Labor Board, whereby advances up to 15 percent above January 1941 wage rates were permitted to compensate for rises in the cost of living. In accordance with national wage-stabilization policy, no further general increases were granted in the war period.[5] Between 1942 and 1943, the average workweek in the industry increased by 5.6 hours and hourly average earnings rose 6.4 cents (to 87.2 cents); in 1943, production workers in all manufacturing industries combined worked 1.6 hours less than packing-house workers and earned 8.9 cents an hour more (96.1 cents). In the durable goods

[4] National Food Situation, April 1946, and Livestock and Wool, April 1946 (U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics).
[5] See Directive Order of the National War Labor Board, February 8, 1943: Big Four Meat-Packing Cases (War Labor Reports, vol. 6, p. 399).

industries, the earnings opportunities were even greater. For example, in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills, production workers averaged $1.124 hourly, or 25.2 cents more than in slaughtering and meat packing, and worked 2.2 hours less a week. The relative disadvantage of the meat-packing industry continued throughout the war years. Average hourly earnings rose to 92.1 cents in 1944 and to 94.1 cents in 1945, and hourly earnings in all manufacturing industries were $1.019 and $1.023, respectively. However, the average workweek in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry was 49.5 hours in 1944, and 47.5 hours in 1945 (involving 10 or more overtime hours a week) as compared with the considerably shorter average workweek of 45.2 and 43.4 hours in all manufacturing industries in the 1944–45 period. Thus, at the end of the war average hourly earnings in the industry were more than 8 cents lower than in all manufacturing industries combined, and 5.3 cents above those for all manufacturing industries in 1939. Average weekly hours worked in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry were 4.1 in excess of those in all manufacturing in 1945 and 2.9 hours longer in 1939.

Another relative disadvantage of the slaughtering and meat-packing industry is that, compared with all manufacturing industries combined, meat packing has an unusually high accident rate. In 1940, according to accident reports submitted to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by slaughtering and meat-packing plants,[6] the industry had an average of 26.8 disabling injuries in the course of every million employee hours. The ratio was about 75 percent higher than the average of 15.3 for all manufacturing industries in that year. According to a special survey of slaughtering and meat-packing plants in 1943, the accident rate was 39.0 as against 20.0 for all manufacturing, or almost double. The cumulative January-December 1945 average of 32.5,[7] was one of the highest injury frequency rates of all industries. Comparable rates, were experienced in such high risk industries as steel-plate fabrication, paper and pulp mills, and structural-clay products.

In spite of certain disadvantages in the war period, relatively long working hours raised average weekly earnings in the industry almost to the level of that in all manufacturing industries. For example, average weekly earnings in the industry were $3.63 below the average for all manufacturing industries in 1942; the difference was narrowed in 1943, and, thereafter, variations in average weekly earnings between the two groups were less than $1.00.

Another important factor in the maintenance of earnings in the industry was the National War Labor Board policy which permitted the correction of certain inequities. This policy may be better understood against the framework of collective bargaining in the industry. In the highly unionized slaughtering and meat-packing industry,[8] the single, industry-wide master agreement, covering 93 plants of the "Big Five" packers (Armour, Cudahy, Swift, Wilson, and Morrell) and involving three differently affiliated unions, established the pattern of labor relations throughout the industry. This series of master agreements (first negotiated in 1940 and 1941) were renewed

[6] See Work Injuries in the Slaughtering and Meat-Packing Industry, 1943, Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (pp. 955-971).
[7] See Industrial Injuries in Manufacturing, Fourth Quarter of 1945, Monthly Labor Review, April 1946 (pp. 597-600).
[8] More than 80 percent of the industry is covered by union agreements. See Extent of Collective Bargaining and Union Recognition in 1945, Monthly Labor Review, April 1946 (p. 568).

from year to year, and in February 1943 the National War Labor Board ordered a uniform termination date (August 11) for all agreements.[9]

Although variations exist in agreements covering conditions in individual companies or plants, certain provisions are uniform throughout the master agreement. Most important of such provisions is the male common labor rate established by "geographical" areas. For example, highly industrialized "Metropolitan" cities have an identical contract rate for male common labor of 72.5 cents an hour; plants in less industrialized "River" cities must pay 70.0 cents an hour; "West Coast" plants pay 77.5 cents an hour. In "Southern" plants hourly wage rates for common labor range from 55 to 64 cents.[10] During the war period, as areas became more industrialized, as manpower stringencies increased, and as other comparable emergencies arose, the National War Labor Board granted some relief to the plants in those areas by classifying them into the area with the next higher common labor rate. Adjustments to classifications above common labor were made also, to preserve occupational differentials. Still other types of upward adjustments ordered by the National War Labor Board were 2¼ cents an hour compensation for time spent in changing clothes; 50 cents a week allowance for special-purpose garments (as for example, laundering butchers' gowns); and extra compensation for repairing and preparing tools.[9] In addition, production workers were paid for time off on recognized holidays and were granted paid vacations.

The master agreement which applies uniformly to all covered plants provides for the guaranteed workweek of 36 hours. In view of the substantially longer hours actually worked in the war period, workers did not need to rely on the guaranty. However, the provision represents an important support for maintaining average weekly earnings in the postwar period.

Changed Wage Policy

A changed wage policy was inaugurated for the industry as a result of a Nation-wide strike on January 16, 1946, which tied up all slaughtering and affiliated operations of the major packing companies. On January 28, employees returned to work as the Government seized certain plants and facilities of the Big Five packers. A Fact Finding Panel was appointed by the President, and on February 7 it recommended a wage increase of 16 cents an hour. Subsequently, the seized plants were returned to their owners with orders to put into effect the wage increase recommended by the Panel, retroactive to January 28, the date of seizure.

[9] See Directive Order the National War Labor Board, February 8, 1943: Big Four Meat Packing Companies (War Labor Reports, vol. 6, p. 399).

[10] Originally, "Metropolitan" area referred only to Chicago and New York, but the term was gradually extended to cover all plants with the same level of male common labor rates. "Metropolitan" plants are generally located north of the Mason-Dixon line and east of the Rocky Mountains. The "River" plants were originally those located in the Missouri River Valley, but the term was gradually applied to all northern plants with a male common labor rate 2½ cents below that of "Metropolitan" plants, regardless of location. This gave consideration to nongeographical considerations such as the extent of industrial activity, labor market area, population, cost of living, etc. The "West Coast" classification was the only one to be established by the National War Labor Board, in part to seal off the high wage areas in California, Oregon, and Washington, so as to prevent them from serving as the basis for boosting rates in "Metropolitan" areas. The other three geographical classifications described are historical and were recognized in the NRA code formulated for the slaughtering and meat-packing industry in 1933. See War Labor Reports, Vol. 21 (pp. 652–745).

Coincident with Presidential approval of its orders in the "Big Five" case, the National Wage Stabilization Board adopted a "pattern approval" order, whereby wage increases up to 16 cents an hour above the August 17, 1945, level could be granted in meat-packing plants in which wages were normally adjusted in relation to those paid by the "Big Five" packers.[11] To enable immediate payment of wage increases, pending approval of price increases by the Office of Price Administration, special temporary subsidies were permitted to meat packers.

The increase was reflected immediately, as average hourly earnings rose from $0.939 in February to $1.048 in March 1946. Both employment and average hours worked weekly declined between these 2 months. Average weekly earnings remained about the same, in spite of the shortened workweek.

Analysis of reports to the Bureau from 309 slaughtering and meat-packing establishments, employing 122,269 wage earners in March 1946 (see table 3), reveals average hourly earnings of $1.053 an hour, and comments on the record earnings confirm widespread wage increases. However, the earnings ranged from $0.552 to $2.02 hourly, a spread of $1.468. Almost half of the wage earners worked in plants in which earnings averaged from $1.00 to $1.10 an hour. Of the 30 percent of the wage earners working in plants having averages of less than $1.00, about two-thirds were employed in plants averaging between $0.90 and $1.00. The largest single concentration of wage earners, comprising fully one-fourth of the sample, was in plants for which earnings averaged from $1.05 to $1.10 an hour.

TABLE 3.—*Frequency Distribution of Average Hourly Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing, March 1946* [1]

Hourly earnings—Plant average	Number of reporting establishments	Production workers		
		Number reported	Percent of total	Cumulative percentage
Under 60 cents	4	233	0.2	0.2
60–69 cents	12	1,024	.8	1.0
70–79 cents	17	634	.5	1.5
80–89 cents	41	10,412	8.5	10.0
90–99 cents	63	23,790	19.5	29.5
100–109 cents	73	57,767	47.2	76.7
110–119 cents	37	16,839	13.8	90.5
120–129 cents	25	5,037	4.1	94.6
130–139 cents	10	1,422	1.2	95.8
140–149 cents	14	841	.7	96.5
150–159 cents	6	4,001	3.3	99.8
160 cents and over	7	269	.2	100.0
Total	309	122,269	100.0	

[1] Reports cover any part of the pay period ending nearest March 15, 1946, on both a full-time and a part-time basis. See footnote 1, table 1, for definition of the industry.

A distribution of average weekly earnings tabulated from the March 1946 reports, indicates that somewhat more than half of the 122,269 wage earners covered, worked in plants for which the averages were between $40 and $46 per week, as shown in table 4, while almost

[11] See General Pattern Approval No. 1: Meat Packing Industry, issued under Executive Order No. 9697, February 25, 1946 (National Wage Stabilization Board, Release No. 10A, February 26, 1946).

three-fourths of all wage earners were employed in plants in which the earnings averaged from $36 to $46 weekly. The average in all of the plants reporting was $42.66, and the range in individual plants was from $21.72 to $92.90.

TABLE 4.—*Frequency Distribution of Average Weekly Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing, March 1946* [1]

Weekly earnings—Plant average	Number of reporting establishments	Production workers		
		Number reported	Percent of total	Cumulative percentage
Less than $30.00	20	1,126	0.9	0.9
$30.00–$32.99	22	6,406	5.2	6.1
$33.00–$35.99	30	6,427	5.3	11.4
$36.00–$38.99	38	23,340	19.1	30.5
$39.00–$41.99	45	14,010	11.4	41.9
$42.00–$44.99	48	37,037	30.3	72.2
$45.00–$47.99	17	14,367	11.8	84.0
$48.00–$50.99	22	9,484	7.8	91.8
$51.00–$53.99	21	5,772	4.7	96.5
$54.00–$56.99	13	942	.8	97.3
$57.00–$59.99	11	1,329	1.1	98.4
$60.00 and over	22	2,029	1.6	100.0
Total	309	122,269	100.0	

[1] Reports cover any part of the pay period ending nearest March 15, 1946, on both a full-time and a part-time basis. See footnote 1, table 1, for definition of the industry.

In respect to average hours worked per week, over 60 percent of the wage earners in the sample were employed in plants working less than 41 hours and about half of these employees worked in plants averaging from 39 to 41 hours (see table 5). Slightly more than 30 percent worked in plants operating from 41 to 45 hours weekly; the remaining 7 percent (about 9,000 workers) were engaged in plants which continued to work the longer hours characteristic of the industry in the war period. The wide spread apparent in the earnings distribution is also evident in respect to hours. Average hours worked in individual plants ranged from 20 to 64 per week.

TABLE 5.—*Frequency Distribution of Average Weekly Hours in Slaughtering and Meat Packing, March 1946* [1]

Weekly hours—Plant average	Number of reporting establishments	Production workers		
		Number reported	Percent of total	Cumulative percentage
Under 35 hours	18	5,061	4.1	4.1
35–36.99 hours	29	11,166	9.1	13.2
37–38.99 hours	40	20,561	16.8	30.0
39–40.99 hours	67	37,269	30.5	60.5
41–42.99 hours	40	18,676	15.3	75.8
43–44.99 hours	48	20,524	16.8	92.6
45–46.99 hours	26	5,086	4.2	96.8
47–48.99 hours	12	1,265	1.0	97.8
49–50.99 hours	9	1,247	1.0	98.8
51 hours and over	20	1,414	1.2	100.0
Total	309	122,269	100.0	

[1] Reports cover any part of the pay period ending nearest March 15, 1946, on both a full-time and a part-time basis. See footnote 1, table 1, for definition of the industry.

The special tabulation [12] indicates that most of the meat-packing plants in the sample were located in the North. Only 46 plants, or 15 percent of the sample, were located in the South,[13] and these employed 8 percent of the wage earners in the sample. The dominant packing companies (the traditional "Big Four" and Morrell) constituted a little over 19 percent of the plants in the sample, but they employed about 56 percent of all the production workers in the sample. About 52 percent of these workers had jobs in northern plants; only 4 percent worked in southern plants of the "Big Five" packing companies.

A wide differential was found between average hourly earnings in northern and southern plants. The regional average for all northern plants combined was $1.066 hourly compared with $0.876, the regional average for all southern plants. The differential, which in the sample amounts to 19 cents an hour, is partly traditional, but does to some extent reflect factors such as smaller and less industrialized communities, and smaller firms.[14]

A national sample from plants of the major packing companies shows that hourly earnings averaged 1.6 cents less than in plants of the "independents." However, average hourly earnings in all the northern plants of the "Big Five" were 3 cents an hour less than the comparable average for independent plants, and the average for all southern plants of the "Big Five" combined exceeded the regional average for independent plants by almost 11 cents an hour. It appears that the major packers were more consistently able to preserve the prewar North-South differential than were the smaller packers. For example, in March 1946 average hourly earnings in plants of the "Big Five" were $1.053 in northern plants and $0.928 in southern plants, a difference of 12½ cents. Comparable earnings in plants of the major packers in the 1937 survey were 71.5 cents in the North and 58 cents in the South, a difference of 13½ cents per hour.

In the independent plants (other than the "Big Five"), the North-South differential appears to have increased. In the 1937 survey, when earnings in both North ($0.615) and South ($0.418) were below "Big Five" averages, a differential of 19.7 cents per hour was apparent in favor of the northern plants of the "independents." However, March 1946 tabulations, showing $1.083 in northern independent plants, indicated that the differential had widened to 26.4 cents an hour. The substantial increases in average hourly earnings in independent plants may in part be the result of competition for scarce labor.

Analysis of average weekly earnings by geographic regions indicates a marked North-South differential. Earnings in northern plants averaged $43.29 as compared with $35.77 in southern plants, a spread of $7.52 a week for a slightly shorter workweek (see table 6). The comparable North–South differential in the plants of the "Big Five"

[12] The reports from some 310 establishments employing about 122,000 wage earners, from which frequency distributions of average hours and earnings were taken, also yielded data by region and type of establishment. It should be cautioned that averages computed from these reports are for plants, not for individual wage earners.

[13] The southern plants are located in Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Texas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina. All other States are considered as northern.

[14] In the December 1937 survey of the wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing industry, covering 258 plants and 49,235 wage earners, a 17-cent differential existed between the average hourly earnings in northern plants ($0.667) and those in southern plants ($0.497). See Earnings and Hours in the Meat-Packing Industry, December 1937, Monthly Labor Review, October 1939 (pp. 936–959).

packers was $6.31; in this instance the average workweek in southern plants was more than an hour shorter than in northern plants.

In the national sample, average weekly earnings were approximately the same for both the major packers and the independent companies. This relationship also held in the North as a whole, although in both national and regional comparisons the average workweek varied by about 1 hour. However, in the South, more marked differences were apparent between the two types of establishments. Weekly earnings averaged $37.08 for a 40-hour week in southern plants of the "Big Five," while comparable earnings in plants of independent packers averaged $2.79 less for a longer week of 41.9 hours.

TABLE 6.—*Employment, Hours, and Earnings in Slaughtering and Meat Packing, by Region and Type of Establishment, March 1946* [1]

Region and type of establishment	Number of establishments	Number of production workers	Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings
United States, total	311	122,916	$42.69	40.6	$1.051
"Big Five"	60	68,589	42.91	41.1	1.044
Other	251	54,327	42.41	40.0	1.060
Northern States	265	113,179	43.29	40.6	1.066
"Big Five"	51	63,418	43.39	41.2	1.053
Other	214	49,761	43.16	39.8	1.083
Southern States	46	9,737	35.77	40.9	.876
"Big Five"	9	5,171	37.08	40.0	.928
Other	37	4,566	34.29	41.9	.819

[1] Based on reports covering any part of the pay period ending nearest March 15, 1946, on both a full-time and a part-time basis. See footnote 1, table [illegible] definition of the industry.

Wages of Office Workers in Metalworking Industries, January 1945 [1]

THE organization of modern manufacturing has led to a relative expansion of the labor force required for record keeping and business transactions. Almost a tenth of the country's present manufacturing employees are office or clerical workers, a third of whom are employed in metalworking industries.

The wage data presented here for a selected number of key office occupations are based on surveys of 18 industries [2] covering about 6,400 establishments,[3] or about a fifth of all metalworking plants in the United States. Because this summary is a byproduct of individual industry studies, certain important metalworking industries were not covered, notably blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills, airframe manufacture, and shipbuilding, as well as central offices not operated at the site of industrial plants.

The data consist of average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime and nonincentive bonuses but including any cost-of-living adjustments. In the case of salaried workers, hourly earnings were computed by dividing salaries for the normal workweek by normal rather than actual hours of work.[4]

Information is presented for only selected office jobs. In the main, these are the lower paid, more standardized office occupations; variations in functions within the more highly paid jobs make interplant comparisons difficult and of limited significance. Accordingly the study includes relatively few jobs in which appreciable numbers of men were employed.

Average Hourly Earnings

Office workers earned about one-fifth more in the metalworking industries than in department stores. There was, however, no consistent variation in office workers' earnings between metalworking industries and electric light and power companies, another large employer of office workers.[5] In some jobs and in some regions,

[1] This report was prepared in the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch by Lily Mary David. Field work for the survey was conducted under the direction of the Bureau's Regional Wage Analysts.

[2] The industries included in the summary are aircraft engines and engine parts, communication equipment, electric generating and distribution equipment, electroplating and polishing, fabricated structural steel, ferrous and nonferrous foundries, iron and steel forgings, machine-tool accessories, machine tools, machinery, motor vehicles and vehicle bodies, power boilers, radio and radio equipment, sheet metal, small arms, tanks, and tool and die jobbing shops.

The proportion of establishments studied varied among industries and, within each industry, was also somewhat higher for large cities and large establishments. The effect of these varying proportions on the wage information presented was offset by appropriate weighting but the information on wage practices, presented in terms of number of establishments, has not been adjusted to compensate for varying coverage.

Detail on hourly earnings and wage practices for the individual industries studied is available upon request.

[3] About 700 of these employed no office workers. Within each industry, establishments were selected to provide a representative picture of wage levels in all sections of the country. They were visited by field representatives of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, who transcribed wage data from pay rolls and other basic records and classified workers according to uniform job descriptions. These descriptions are available upon request.

[4] The number of workers refers to estimated total employment in the industries studied rather than only in the establishments actually surveyed.

[5] The information for department stores and utilities was based on an April 1945 pay-roll period.

utility workers' average earnings were higher; in others the reverse relationship was found and in a few jobs there was relatively little difference between the two industries. An average for women based on the numerically most important jobs showed only a 1-cent difference for the country as a whole in favor of office workers in utilities. There was a tendency for earnings of office workers to be higher in the metalworking industries in the Great Lakes, Middle West, and Pacific regions and for utility workers' earnings to be higher in the New England, Middle Atlantic, Southeast, and Mountain regions, whereas earnings were, on the average, about the same for both industries in the Southwest.[6]

Within the metalworking group, earnings of office workers were relatively low in the machinery industries and high in tool and die jobbing shops, aircraft engine and parts plants, and nonferrous foundries. For most office jobs average hourly earnings in the machinery industries were about 5 percent below the average in all metalworking industries in the country as a whole and in the Great Lakes region. In tool-and-die jobbing shops, aircraft engine and parts establishments, and nonferrous foundries, earnings for most jobs ranged from 5 to 15 percent above the over-all metalworking averages. In the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Pacific regions the variation in earnings from the metalworking average was generally less consistent from job to job than in the Great Lakes. For specific office occupations in ferrous foundries and machine-tool, communication-equipment, machine-tool accessory, and structural-steel establishments, there was no consistent tendency for wages to be higher or lower than the average for all metalworking.

VARIATION AMONG OCCUPATIONS

In about two-thirds of the key jobs studied in January 1945, women's earnings in the metalworking industries averaged between 65 and 75 cents an hour, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and nonincentive bonuses (table 1). Among the jobs surveyed that covered the largest group of workers, general clerks and clerk-typists received an average of 65 cents per hour, class B stenographers 69 cents, accounting clerks 76 cents, and class A stenographers 81 cents an hour.[7] Earnings of men averaged about one-third more in 4 of the 6 jobs in which they were employed in appreciable numbers—accounting, order, pay-roll, and general clerks.

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[6] Information was not available to permit such a comparison for the Border States.

[7] Class A stenographers were defined as those who take and transcribe dictation of a difficult nature involving a varied technical or specialized vocabulary or who take rapid and varied but less technical dictation. Class B stenographers are those who take and transcribe dictation involving a limited and routine vocabulary or a simple but varied vocabulary at ordinary speed.

TABLE 1.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *for Selected Office Occupations in Selected Metalworking Industries, by Region, January 1945*

Occupation, grade and sex	United States		New England		Middle Atlantic		Border States		Southeast[2]	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Men										
Bookkeepers, hand	1,140	$1.12	100	$1.07	252	$1.16	24	$1.05	15	$1.09
Clerks, accounting	2,735	1.04	168	.98	607	1.04	54	1.04	7	(3)
Clerks, general	1,396	.85	105	.81	336	.71	20	.75	22	.76
Clerks, order	1,118	1.00	115	1.00	235	1.01	16	1.03	11	.99
Clerks, pay roll	1,070	.96	96	.86	247	.94	27	.93	8	(3)
Office boys	878	.55	149	.53	282	.54	25	.50	2	(3)
Women										
Billing-machine operators	1,575	.73	228	.70	272	.74	47	.66	8	(3)
Bookkeepers, hand	5,259	.92	798	.86	1,464	.96	86	.82	29	.95
Bookkeeping-machine operators:										
Class A	753	.88	130	.83	78	.97	14	.86	2	(3)
Class B	1,706	.75	243	.70	280	.78	20	.74	5	(3)
Class C	403	.68	70	.64	99	.64	13	.76	2	(3)
Calculating-machine operators:										
Class A	2,176	.79	286	.68	547	.81	7	(3)	8	(3)
Class B	3,165	.69	525	.66	693	.70	74	.71	7	(3)
Clerks, accounting	8,122	.76	948	.70	1,810	.78	131	.71	24	.73
Clerks, file, class A	1,183	.72	141	.68	234	.70	47	.71	------	------
Clerks, file, class B	4,619	.60	579	.58	967	.58	227	.61	19	.63
Clerks, general	14,764	.65	3,188	.61	3,552	.64	63	.63	84	.62
Clerks, order	2,302	.73	363	.70	516	.76	17	.76	5	(3)
Clerks, pay roll	7,625	.73	1,492	.69	1,730	.73	261	.72	56	.70
Clerk-typists	14,878	.65	2,547	.61	2,883	.64	260	.66	30	.64
Office girls	1,971	.55	316	.51	575	.53	46	.54	7	(3)
Stenographers, class A	9,490	.81	1,305	.77	2,241	.78	191	.82	98	.76
Stenographers, class B	13,985	.69	1,352	.66	3,993	.69	300	.67	68	.64
Switchboard operators	1,896	.73	291	.69	591	.74	70	.66	7	(3)
Switchboard operators-receptionists	3,246	.70	368	.66	867	.69	33	.63	14	.62
Transcribing-machine operators:										
Class A	658	.76	109	.72	110	.75	------	------	1	(3)
Class B	822	.67	140	.59	169	.70	10	.54	1	(3)
Typists, copy, class A	2,039	.70	284	.66	591	.71	77	.73	------	------
Typists, copy, class B	4,080	.61	514	.58	1,156	.62	110	.58	------	------

See footnotes at end of table.

GEOGRAPHIC VARIATIONS

Earnings on the Pacific Coast were distinctly higher—about 15 percent on the average—than in any other region. Although for two-thirds of the individual jobs earnings varied among the other regions by at least 15 percent, the position of each region was not consistent from job to job; consequently an average based on the entire group of key jobs showed a range in the other regions of about 9 percent, with the Great Lakes region at the upper limit and New England at the lower limit.[8]

On a city basis, women office workers in the metalworking industries

[8] Data for the Southeast are based almost entirely on cities of at least 100,000; in view of the relatively small amount of metalworking in this section of the country outside of these cities, the data are believed to be reasonably accurate for the entire region although inclusion of smaller communities might reduce average earnings for the region somewhat below those in New England.

The regions used in this study are as follows: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont; *Middle Atlantic*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; *Border States*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia; *Southeast*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee; *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin; *Middle West*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; *Southwest*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas; *Mountain*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming; and *Pacific*—California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington.

TABLE 1.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *for Selected Office Occupations in Selected Metalworking Industries, by Region, January 1945*—Continued

Occupation, grade and sex	Great Lakes		Middle West		Southwest		Mountain		Pacific	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Men										
Bookkeepers, hand	470	$1.16	81	$0.98	66	$1.05	5	(3)	127	$1.12
Clerks, accounting	1,507	1.07	251	.98	32	.87	9	(3)	100	1.10
Clerks, general	828	.92	27	.72	25	.76			33	.91
Clerks, order	513	1.03	132	.87	20	.85	2	(3)	74	1.00
Clerks, pay roll	529	1.02	121	.81	13	.89	11	$0.79	18	1.12
Office boys	344	.59	64	.44	3	(3)	4	(3)	5	(3)
Women										
Billing-machine operators	853	.75	96	.71	9	(3)	3	(3)	59	.82
Bookkeepers, hand	2,099	.92	139	.82	66	.83	21	.91	557	1.00
Bookkeeping-machine operators:										
Class A	340	.87	74	.79	7	(3)	6	(3)	102	.96
Class B	846	.76	241	.74	3	(3)	1	(3)	67	.85
Class C	186	.72	25	.57					8	(3)
Calculating-machine operators:										
Class A	1,221	.77	47	.76	4	(3)	12	.73	44	.86
Class B	1,670	.69	135	.69	8	(3)	8	(3)	45	.82
Clerks, accounting	4,133	.77	459	.73	57	.74	32	.75	528	.87
Clerks, file, class A	659	.75	67	.63	2	(3)			33	.78
Clerks, file, class B	2,529	.61	178	.56	5	(3)	5	(3)	110	.68
Clerks, general	7,079	.67	143	.59	76	.69	5	(3)	574	.79
Clerks, order	1,151	.72	135	.61	5	(3)	6	(3)	104	.84
Clerks, pay roll	3,303	.74	369	.67	37	.73	27	.63	350	.87
Clerk-typists	7,746	.66	596	.62	64	.63	26	.69	726	.77
Office girls	806	.57	145	.61	4	(3)	1	(3)	71	.63
Stenographers, class A	4,367	.82	403	.76	102	.80	22	.77	761	.89
Stenographers, class B	6,776	.69	597	.67	133	.69	57	.66	709	.83
Switchboard operators	785	.74	75	.73	11	.66	1	(3)	65	.82
Switchboard operators-receptionists	1,461	.73	148	.63	46	.65	11	.66	298	.80
Transcribing-machine operators:										
Class A	339	.77	72	.77	2	(3)			25	.78
Class B	393	.67	101	.69					8	(3)
Typists, copy, class A	978	.70	71	.67	3	(3)	2	(3)	33	.78
Typists, copy, class B	1,995	.61	200	.61	2	(3)	19	.62	84	.74

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Based primarily on cities of 100,000 or more population.
[3] Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of an average.

in Detroit were generally the highest paid.[9] Los Angeles followed Detroit, and San Francisco held third place. The position of other cities varied appreciably among jobs, but New York, Cleveland, and Chicago in general had the next highest wages. Among cities with a population of 500,000 or more, Boston, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, and St. Louis ranked relatively low.[10]

Table 2 presents office workers' earnings in a group of 16 wage areas.[11] Included are all wage areas built around cities of 500,000 or more, except Washington, D. C., as well as a few other large cities in the leading metalworking sections of the United States.

[9] Detroit also ranked high among the jobs employing substantial numbers of men.
[10] Pittsburgh had relatively low average hourly earnings although the exclusion of blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills should be noted in evaluating the data for this city. The omission of this industry as well as of shipbuilding and airframe manufacture also affects the significance of the wage data for certain other cities, notably, Baltimore and Seattle.
[11] A wage area consists of a central city and such surrounding territory as constitutes a relatively homogeneous area with respect to wage structure. A supplementary table showing data for additional wage areas built around cities of 100,000 or more is available on request.

TABLE 2.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *for Selected Office Occupations in Selected Metalworking Industries, 16 Wage Areas, January 1945*

Occupation, grade, and sex	Average hourly earnings in—							
	Baltimore, Md.	Boston, Mass.	Buffalo, N. Y.	Chicago, Ill.	Cleveland, Ohio	Detroit, Mich.	Los Angeles, Calif.	Milwaukee, Wis.
Men								
Bookkeepers, hand	(2)	$1.07	(2)	$1.28	$1.36	$1.38	$1.06	$1.07
Clerks, accounting	$1.16	.96	$1.06	1.11	1.13	1.24	1.05	1.11
Clerks, general	-------	.92	.86	.90	.88	1.04	.92	.86
Clerks, pay roll	.92	.96	(2)	1.03	1.06	1.27	(2)	1.01
Office boys	.53	.52	.57	.59	.63	.60	-------	.53
Women								
Billing-machine operators	.73	.72	.69	.76	.77	.88	.85	.67
Bookkeepers, hand	.80	.84	.95	.96	.88	1.12	1.05	.90
Calculating-machine operators:								
Class A	-------	.74	.90	.85	.82	.87	.87	.67
Class B	.74	.68	.74	.69	.75	.82	.78	.61
Clerks, accounting	.78	.71	.84	.79	.82	.88	.88	.69
Clerks, file, class A	.75	.68	.69	.78	.82	.80	.80	.65
Clerks, file, class B	.60	.54	.57	.62	.66	.70	.68	.54
Clerks, general	.64	.61	.66	.70	.69	.82	.80	.60
Clerks, pay roll	.77	.70	.76	.79	.80	.91	.89	.68
Clerk-typists	.68	.59	.66	.71	.73	.76	.78	.57
Office girls	.54	.52	.56	.58	.70	.63	.63	.53
Stenographers, class A	.79	.75	.84	.89	.88	.94	.91	.72
Stenographers, class B	.68	.65	.69	.76	.80	.82	.85	.62
Switchboard operators	.67	.70	.76	.78	.82	.80	.84	.70
Typists, copy, class A	.72	.67	.70	.75	.77	.84	(2)	.64
Typists, copy, class B	.60	.55	.58	.64	.67	.71	.73	.56

Occupation, grade, and sex	Average hourly earnings in—							
	Minneapolis, Minn.	Newark, N. J.	New York, N. Y.	Philadelphia, Pa.	Pittsburgh, Pa.	St. Louis, Mo.	San Francisco, Calif.	Seattle, Wash.
Men								
Bookkeepers, hand	$1.04	$1.16	$1.22	$1.02	$1.16	$0.89	$1.29	$1.31
Clerks, accounting	1.00	.99	1.07	.96	(2)	.90	1.01	1.22
Clerks, general	(2)	.79	.74	.61	(2)	.71	(2)	-------
Clerks, pay roll	(2)	1.09	(2)	.88	.93	.71	(2)	(2)
Office boys	(2)	.54	.56	.49	-------	.60	(2)	-------
Women								
Billing-machine operators	(2)	.75	.80	.73	.61	.77	.76	(2)
Bookkeepers, hand	.80	1.03	1.00	.92	.95	.86	1.04	.95
Calculating-machine operators:								
Class A	(2)	.75	.86	.72	(2)	.84	.83	-------
Class B	-------	.71	.74	.63	(2)	.67	.83	.85
Clerks, accounting	.66	.76	.86	.75	.70	.71	.88	.86
Clerks, file, class A	.72	.74	.80	.70	.67	(2)	.72	(2)
Clerks, file, class B	.57	.59	.65	.54	.53	.53	.67	.72
Clerks, general	.58	.68	.68	.57	.68	.57	.79	(2)
Clerks, pay roll	.70	.73	.82	.76	.69	.66	.84	.88
Clerk-typists	.64	.64	.70	.59	.63	.55	.78	.74
Office girls	.51	.58	.55	.48	.51	.49	.62	.63
Stenographers, class A	.77	.82	.90	.71	.72	.74	.91	.82
Stenographers, class B	.61	.73	.80	.66	.65	.66	.82	.78
Switchboard operators	.71	.72	.78	.69	(2)	(2)	.78	.78
Typists, copy, class A	(2)	.69	.80	.65	(2)	.62	.74	-------
Typists, copy, class B	.55	.60	.68	.58	.63	.57	.75	-------

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Insufficient number of workers to justify presentation of an average.

VARIATION WITH SIZE OF COMMUNITY AND SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENT [12]

Average hourly earnings for most office jobs tended to increase with size of community. Most frequently the differential was 10 percent or less in favor of cities of at least 100,000 persons compared with cities of 25,000 to 100,000 population; in turn, the latter held a similar advantage over communities of less than 25,000. Comparing large and small communities directly, the difference in favor of the former amounted to about 14 to 18 percent for one-third of the jobs (including such numerically important jobs as stenographers, accounting clerks, and clerk-typists). Among the large cities, those with more than 500,000 population had higher wage levels than cities of 100,000 to 500,000 inhabitants.

On the whole, size of establishment did not appear to be in an important factor associated with interplant variations in hourly earnings for women in the office jobs studied.[13] Where differences were observed, and these were relatively uncommon, the highest earnings were usually reported by establishments with 251 to 500 workers.

Vacation, Sick Leave, and Insurance Provisions

Paid vacations were provided for office workers with at least a year of service in 6 out of 7 metalworking establishments studied. Almost all of the plants allowed either 1 or 2 weeks' vacation with pay, the two periods being almost equally common. Even in the Border States, the Southeast, and Southwest, where the typical establishment was relatively small and formal vacation plans were less widespread than in other regions, at least two-thirds of the establishments had formal vacation plans for office workers. The length of the vacation period was notably longer in New England, where about three-fifths of the plants provided 2 weeks' vacation after a year of service.[14]

TABLE 3.—*Formal Provisions for Paid Vacations and Sick Leave for Office Workers With 1 Year's Service in Selected Metalworking Industries, January 1945*

Length of period	Number of establishments studied	
	Vacation plans	Sick-leave plans
Total establishments with office workers	5,739	5,739
All provisions	4,873	678
Less than 1 week	40	22
1 week	2,412	281
2 weeks	2,368	247
Other	53	128
No provisions	783	4,956
Information not available	83	105

[12] The classification by size of community was based on the size of the central city in wage areas built around cities of 100,000 or more and in other cases, on the size of the central city in the county. A table showing average hourly earnings by size of community may be obtained from the Bureau.

[13] An analysis of the variation of earnings of men office workers with size of establishment was not made in view of the relatively small proportion employed in the jobs surveyed.

[14] Detail on the number of vacation plans and the periods provided in each region is available on request.

In general, vacations were more widespread in those industries characterized by large establishments, although at least 70 percent of the plants in each industry provided paid vacations for office workers with a year's service. Vacation provisions were reported by at least 80 percent of the establishments in 16 out of the 18 industries; in 9 of these the proportion was at least 90 percent.

Formal provisions for sick leave for office workers with a year of service were reported by only 1 out of 8 metalworking establishments.[15] About two-fifths of these plans provided a week's leave annually and over a third had a 2 weeks' limit. In New England, sick-leave plans were somewhat more common than elsewhere and most typically provided for a 2-week limit. Over three-fourths of the plants manufacturing military tanks and between a fourth and a fifth of the establishments producing radios, machine tool accessories, aircraft engines and parts, and electric generating and distribution equipment had formal sick-leave provisions for their office staffs. In some industries only about 5 percent of the establishments had such arrangements.

Insurance or pension plans, financed entirely or partly by employers, covered office workers in about two-fifths of the establishments studied. About four-fifths of these firms provided life insurance and slightly less than 3 out of every 5 had health insurance plans. Pacific, Southeastern, and Southwestern establishments provided insurance or pensions less frequently than did plants in the other regions. Such arrangements were least common in nonferrous foundries, sheet-metal establishments, electroplating and tool-and-die jobbing shops, and fabricated structural-steel establishments; only a third or a fourth of these provided insurance plans. In contrast, half or more of the establishments engaged in producing forgings, aircraft engines and parts, electric generating and distribution equipment, motor vehicles, tanks, small arms, machinery, machine tools, and radios had insurance or pension plans.

[15] Informal arrangements, whereby, on occasion at the discretion of their supervisors, workers may receive paid vacations or be paid their salaries regardless of illness, were not studied.

Wage Structure in Foundries, January 1945 [1]

IN JANUARY 1945, straight-time earnings of all plant workers in foundries averaged $1.01 an hour, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and night work and of nonincentive payments. Although rates of pay are the basic components of the wage structure of an industry, the income of workers is directly affected by the hours of work and by the prevalence of such practices as nonincentive payments, paid vacations, and paid sick leave.

Foundries, one of the basic metalworking industries, produce castings used in the manufacture of innumerable metal products, including machinery, machine tools, automobiles, and other transportation equipment. Castings of gray and malleable iron, semisteel, and steel are the principal products of ferrous foundries while brass, aluminum, and magnesium are the primary types of nonferrous metals cast.

The survey of the wage structure of these two types of foundries made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in January 1945 covered 996 establishments employing 161,200 workers—646 establishments with 117,300 employees produced iron and steel castings, and 350 establishments with 43,900 workers made castings from nonferrous metals and alloys. This sample represented over half of the foundry workers and establishments with 8 or more employees in January 1945; smaller establishments, which in the aggregate employed relatively few workers, were excluded. Also excluded were the comparatively large group of workers in "captive" foundries, operated by establishments in other industries [2] and in foundries producing cast iron pipe and fittings.

The foundries studied were selected to provide representation of the most important factors affecting wage rates and were located in all regions of the country and in various sized communities. For most establishments, data were obtained from a January 1945 pay-roll period although in some instances an April 1945 pay period was used.[3]

Straight-Time Hourly Earnings

Individual earnings ranged from less than 40 cents to more than $2.50 an hour; about 1 out of every 30 workers earned less than 65 cents, on the average; and approximately half of the workers received between 65 cents and $1.00.

Straight-time average hourly earnings shown in table 1 are exclusive of premium pay for overtime and night work and of nonincentive payments such as Christmas or profit-sharing bonuses. The number of workers shown represents the approximate total employed in all foundries with 8 or more workers rather than the total number employed in the foundries actually studied.[4]

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[1] This report was prepared by John F. Laciskey of the Bureau's Wage Analysis Branch. The section on the industry's labor force was prepared by Willis C. Quant. Detailed information on wages may be obtained from two mimeographed reports: Wage Structure—Foundries, 1945; and Occupational Wage Relationships—Foundries, 1945. Wage statistics, by locality, are available in the Bureau's regional offices.

[2] Hourly earnings of foundry workers employed in some industries in which foundry processes are important are presented in wage structure reports for these industries. Among these are the studies for machinery, machine tools, and machine-tool accessories.

[3] Field representatives of the Bureau obtained the information from pay rolls or other basic records, and classified foundry workers by occupation on the basis of uniform job descriptions. Copies of these job descriptions are available on request.

[4] Exclusive of administrative, executive, professional, and office personnel. While the wage rates of inexperienced beginners, apprentices, and handicapped workers were excluded from the data for specific occupational groupings, they were included in the over-all averages and distributions. Workers on all shifts were included in the employment count, but premium pay for late shift work was omitted from the wage data.

TABLE 1.—*Percentage Distribution of All Plant Workers in Ferrous and Nonferrous Foundries by Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings [1] and Region, January 1945*

Average hourly earnings [1]	United States	New England	Middle Atlantic	Border States	Southeast	Great Lakes	Middle West	Southwest	Mountain	Pacific
Under 40.0 cents	[2]		[2]							
40.0–42.4 cents	0.1	[2]	[2]	0.2	6.8	[2]	[2]	0.1		[2]
42.5–44.9 cents	[2]		[2]			[2]	[2]	[2]	0.1	
45.0–47.4 cents	.1	0.1	[2]	.2	4.5	[2]	0.1	.3	.1	
47.5–49.9 cents	[2]	[2]	0.1	[2]	.5	[2]		[2]		
50.0–52.4 cents	.6	.6	.4	3.7	15.2	0.1	.5	6.6	.1	[2]
52.5–54.9 cents	.1	.3	.1	.7	1.8	[2]		.3		[2]
55.0–57.4 cents	.6	.8	.4	.8	11.9	.2	.5	8.2	.2	[2]
57.5–59.9 cents	.2	.5	.2	1.1	1.5	.1	.6	1.1		
60.0–62.4 cents	1.3	1.9	1.2	1.8	11.0	.9	1.7	11.9	.2	0.1
62.5–64.9 cents	.5	1.2	.6	1.8	1.7	.2	.8	3.3	.1	[2]
65.0–67.4 cents	2.4	6.1	1.8	4.6	7.4	1.6	5.4	12.2	4.7	.6
67.5–69.9 cents	1.0	2.2	.9	3.4	1.3	.6	3.9	2.0	.3	
70.0–72.4 cents	4.8	6.2	4.0	10.7	4.8	3.8	16.5	9.0	14.0	.3
72.5–74.9 cents	1.8	2.4	1.8	1.7	.3	1.7	4.2	3.7	.9	.1
75.0–77.4 cents	5.6	6.8	5.4	10.9	4.0	4.6	15.5	7.1	16.8	1.4
77.5–79.9 cents	4.8	3.3	7.2	2.2	.9	4.7	7.1	.7	1.1	[2]
80.0–84.9 cents	9.8	8.4	10.9	8.5	4.6	10.4	10.5	4.8	7.9	4.0
85.0–89.9 cents	8.6	6.8	10.0	9.7	2.1	8.8	7.5	3.5	14.6	6.7
90.0–94.9 cents	8.0	7.3	9.2	5.0	3.3	8.3	4.4	3.0	9.8	10.0
95.0–99.9 cents	5.9	4.7	6.4	3.2	3.2	6.0	2.8	2.5	4.5	10.6
100.0–104.9 cents	7.0	6.9	7.0	4.2	2.8	6.9	2.9	4.0	3.2	14.8
105.0–109.9 cents	5.3	4.3	5.0	2.3	3.0	5.9	2.9	1.0	13.1	6.1
110.0–114.9 cents	5.2	10.3	4.2	12.2	2.5	5.0	2.5	2.9	2.8	7.8
115.0–119.9 cents	4.4	4.9	4.6	2.8	1.3	4.9	1.3	2.2	2.8	3.9
120.0–124.9 cents	4.6	2.4	4.0	2.6	1.5	4.9	2.5	4.5	1.0	8.7
125.0–129.9 cents	4.1	3.2	3.4	1.5	.6	4.1	.8	2.0	.2	12.4
130.0–134.9 cents	2.8	1.9	2.9	.9	.3	3.1	.6	1.0	.4	4.3
135.0–139.9 cents	1.9	1.1	2.1	.9	.2	2.1	.6	.3	.1	2.6
140.0–144.9 cents	1.4	.6	1.5	.3	.2	1.6	.7	1.2	.6	1.7
145.0–149.9 cents	1.0	.7	.9	.3	.1	1.2	.4	.1	.1	.3
150.0–159.9 cents	1.7	1.8	1.2	.4	.3	2.2	.7	.4	.2	1.4
160.0–169.9 cents	1.3	.8	.9	.5	.1	1.8	.6	.1		.8
170.0–179.9 cents	.9	.4	.5	.3	.3	1.3	.2		.1	.4
180.0–189.9 cents	.7	.3	.3	.2		1.0	.2			.4
190.0–199.9 cents	.4	.2	.2	.1	[2]	.6	.2	[2]		.1
200.0–209.9 cents	.4	.2	.1	.1		.5	.3			.1
210.0–219.9 cents	.2	.1	.1	.1		.3	.1			.1
220.0–229.9 cents	.1	.1	.1	.1		.2	.1			.1
230.0–239.9 cents	.1	.1	.1	[2]		.1	.1			[2]
240.0–249.9 cents	.1	[2]	[2]	[2]		.1	.2			.1
250.0 cents and over	.2	.1	.3	[2]		.2	.1			.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of workers	275,600	12,400	59,900	7,800	3,500	151,600	16,100	4,600	1,300	18,400
Average hourly earnings [1]	$1.01	$0.90	$0.98	$0.88	$0.69	$1.05	$0.85	$0.78	$0.87	$1.10

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.
[2] Less than one-twentieth of 1 percent.

National levels of pay for a number of selected key occupations indicate that for identical jobs workers in nonferrous foundries generally earned more than the corresponding groups in ferrous foundries (table 2). Watchmen and wood patternmakers were at the extremes in the wage scales in both branches of the industry. Among plant workers, differences in pay tended to be greater for the more skilled jobs; workers in the less skilled occupations, who were usually compensated on a time basis, received practically the same rate in both types of foundries. In the occupations for which the ferrous branch reported higher rates, the difference usually amounted to 5 cents or less.

Men plant workers earned about one-fifth more than women in straight-time hourly pay in ferrous foundries and about one-fourth

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Wage Rates (Straight-Time Hourly Earnings)* [1] *for Selected Occupations in Ferrous and Nonferrous Foundries, January 1945*

PLANT WORKERS

Occupation, grade, and sex	Ferrous foundries		Nonferrous foundries	
	Number of workers	Average hourly rates	Number of workers	Average hourly rates
Men				
Carpenters, maintenance	759	$1.03	198	$1.11
Chippers and grinders	21,291	1.06	4,559	.95
Coremakers, hand	8,282	1.22	3,206	1.24
Coremakers, turn-over-draw machine	2,035	1.26	963	1.29
Electricians, maintenance	1,376	1.12	270	1.18
Guards	1,534	.81	508	.88
Inspectors, class A	378	1.06	309	1.19
Inspectors, class B	1,614	1.01	509	1.10
Inspectors, class C	1,898	.88	797	.94
Maintenance men, general utility	1,900	.97	331	1.07
Mechanics, maintenance	1,416	1.08	351	1.17
Molders, floor	10,623	1.17	1,750	1.35
Molders, hand, bench	4,654	1.14	2,673	1.22
Molders, machine	11,743	1.31	3,552	1.29
Patternmakers, wood	1,771	1.34	447	1.45
Pourers, metal	3,220	.98	1,607	.98
Sand mixers, hand and machine	3,773	.87	942	.85
Shake-out men	7,753	.94	2,648	.89
Stock clerks	782	.87	223	.91
Truckers, hand	1,485	.81	436	.81
Truckers, power	1,443	.94	284	.94
Watchmen	1,230	.68	407	.67
Working foremen, processing departments	2,722	1.16	1,285	1.22
Women				
Chippers and grinders	581	.85	275	.80
Coremakers, hand	583	.95	234	1.04
Coremakers, turn-over-draw machine	187	.84	43	1.23
Inspectors, class B	144	.93	117	.80
Inspectors, class C	747	.81	361	.76

OFFICE WORKERS

Men				
Bookkeepers, hand	115	$1.03	28	$1.21
Clerks, accounting	145	1.01	82	1.14
Clerks, pay roll	231	.96	60	1.11
Women				
Bookkeepers, hand	272	.90	240	.94
Bookkeeping machine operators, class B	101	.79	25	.85
Calculating-machine operators, class A	59	.77	59	.89
Calculating-machine operators, class B	169	.67	64	.76
Clerks, accounting	470	.78	195	.82
Clerks, file, class B	66	.61	113	.67
Clerks, general	549	.65	176	.74
Clerks, order	86	.71	67	.79
Clerks, pay roll	667	.72	207	.78
Clerk-typists	579	.67	340	.69
Stenographers, class A	347	.82	146	.86
Stenographers, class B	601	.69	296	.74
Typists, copy, class B	122	.61	68	.65

[1] Excluding premium pay for overtime and night work.

more in nonferrous foundries. In both branches, women averaged 83 cents an hour compared with over-all averages for men of $1.01 in ferrous and $1.05 in nonferrous foundries. Women's earnings were concentrated within a narrower range; about three-fifths of the women were paid between 65 and 90 cents an hour, whereas over half of the men received between 80 cents and $1.20 an hour.

To a great extent, these differences in over-all averages reflected

differences in pay for comparable work.[5] On the same job, men averaged about one-fifth more than women. For time workers alone, the average differential in favor of men was about one-fourth in ferrous foundries and about one-sixth in nonferrous foundries.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EARNINGS [6]

In the regions with the greatest concentration of foundries (Middle Atlantic, Great Lakes, and Pacific) straight-time average hourly earnings were higher than elsewhere. The Southeast and Pacific regions were at the extremes of the wage scale, varying by over 60 percent in ferrous foundries and by about 50 percent in nonferrous foundries. In all regions, except the Mountain and Middle Atlantic States, workers on nonferrous metals had higher average hourly earnings than those in iron and steel foundries.

In both branches, regional differences in occupational earnings were similar to those shown by the over-all averages, although the spread differed among jobs. In ferrous foundries, earnings of bench molders varied about 70 percent between the Southeast and the Pacific regions, and for floor molders the difference was almost 40 percent. In nonferrous foundries, the regional spread for floor molders was much wider than for bench molders. The range for the former was 48 percent between the Southeast and the Great Lakes regions; for the latter, the range amounted to about 23 percent between the Southeast and Pacific regions.

VARIATION OF OCCUPATIONAL WAGE RATES WITH SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENT, SIZE OF COMMUNITY, UNIONIZATION, AND METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

Differences in size of establishment, size of community in which a plant is located, unionization, and method of wage payment are frequently among the leading factors associated with variations in wage levels among plants. For foundries, the influence of some of these factors is difficult to determine because they are interrelated. In general, however, higher levels of pay prevailed in larger establishments and in unionized plants. Earnings of incentive workers were also uniformly higher than those of time workers performing similar duties.

Variation in wages was less consistent with size of community. The survey disclosed that existing differentials usually favored communities of 100,000 or more population. They were less than 5 percent an hour in ferrous foundries and about 5 percent an hour among nonferrous foundries. For the latter branch, the differential in favor of the large cities was about 10 percent in the Middle Atlantic States and about 7 percent in the Great Lakes States.

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[5] Men and women did not predominate in the same occupations but this did not appreciably affect over-all average hourly earnings. Most of the women were employed in jobs that had neither very high nor very low earnings; large numbers of men were at the extremes of the wage scale, as skilled workers and as foundry laborers.

[6] The regions used in this study are as follows: *New England*—Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont; *Middle Atlantic*—New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania; *Border States*—Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia; *Southeast*—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee; *Great Lakes*—Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin; *Middle West*—Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; *Southwest*—Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas; *Mountain*—Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, and Wyoming; and *Pacific*—California, Nevada, Oregon and Washington.

While average hourly earnings were higher in union than in nonunion plants [7] in both branches of the industry, the advantage was greater among ferrous foundries. Union workers received over 30 percent more pay than nonunion employees in some occupations but there were instances in which nonunion jobs showed higher averages. Pay levels were almost identical in union plants in both branches. However, the proportion of workers and plants operating under union contract differed. Approximately three-fifths of the plants and six-sevenths of the workers in the ferrous branch were unionized, compared with somewhat less than one-half of the plants and three-fourths of the workers in nonferrous foundries.

The straight-time average hourly earnings of workers employed on an incentive basis were as much as 40 percent higher than those paid at time rates in some occupations. The average difference was one-third in ferrous foundries and one-fourth in nonferrous foundries. In general, the differential was greatest among workers in the less skilled jobs.

In January 1945, incentive systems of wage payment, based on individual or group productivity, were reported by 30 percent of the plants and the plant workers in the nonferrous foundries, and by 20 percent of the plants and employees in the ferrous foundries. On the whole, incentive systems were more important in the larger foundries which were more numerous in the ferrous branch of the industry. Among the leading foundry jobs, over half of the molders and coremakers were paid on an incentive basis.

Wage and Related Practices

In January 1945, approximately three-fourths of the foundries studied had a written or otherwise generally understood wage rate or scale of rates for various occupational groups.

Owing to the manpower shortage, and the great demand for foundry products, many firms reported extra-shift operations and scheduled workweeks that included overtime hours. As a result, straight-time earnings presented earlier in this report were substantially supplemented by premium pay for overtime and extra-shift work.

Although the range of scheduled hours was somewhat similar in both branches of the industry the workweek tended to be longer in the nonferrous branch. The most typical workweek for men was 48 hours, which was reported by over half of the ferrous foundries and 3 out of every 8 nonferrous foundries.

More ferrous than nonferrous foundries operated extra shifts; late shifts were worked by about 2 out of every 7 workers in the former and 2 out of every 9 in the latter branch. Premium pay for the late-shift worker was provided by about three-fifths of the foundries having extra shifts. The most frequent differential for second- and third-shift workers in both branches of the industry was 5 cents an hour.

Significant numbers of establishments paid nonproduction bonuses, such as Christmas or profit-sharing bonuses, and some made relatively large payments. When averaged over all workers in the industry,

[7] Establishments were classified as unionized if more than half of the workers were employed under terms of a union agreement.

they amounted to less than a half cent an hour for plant employees. For office workers, the average was slightly higher.

Frequent subjects for collective bargaining include provisions for paid vacations and insurance or retirement pensions.

Formal *paid vacation plans* for plant workers after 1 year's service were provided in two-thirds of all foundries; four-fifths of the foundries had similar provisions for office workers. A week's vacation with pay was the most common plan for plant workers. More liberal provisions were made for office workers; over 40 percent of the plants allowed them a 2-weeks' vacation.

Paid sick leave plans were uncommon. Only 4 of the 996 foundries studied had such plans for plant workers; about 1 out of 16 foundries employing office workers granted paid sick leave to office personnel. Informal arrangements that may have existed in the plants studied were not included in the Bureau's survey.

Insurance or pension plans were quite commonly provided, although not so widespread as paid vacation plans. About two-fifths of ferrous foundries and three-tenths of nonferrous foundries, had such plans. Life insurance provisions were more frequently reported than other types of protection.

The Labor Force

The composition of an industry's labor force directly influences its general wage level. A brief review of the characteristics of the labor force in foundries will, therefore, aid in interpreting the wage data.

Between ferrous and nonferrous foundries, few important differences exist in occupational structure. The ratio of workers employed as molders (floor, bench, and machine) was nearly identical in both branches;. floor molding was more common in ferrous foundries because of the greater production of large units in this branch. However, the methods employed in melting differed considerably: about a third of the melting workers in ferrous foundries were furnace tenders compared with nearly two-thirds in nonferrous foundries. In contrast, laborers performing a variety of unskilled tasks and material handlers were relatively more numerous in ferrous than in nonferrous foundries, as shown below in the percentage distribution of foundry workers, by occupational group, January 1945.

	Percent of workers in—	
	Ferrous foundries	Nonferrous foundries
Maintenance	4.8	4.2
Patternmakers	1.2	1.3
Processing:		
Coremaking	9.0	11.7
Coremakers, hand	3.7	5.0
Molding	19.4	20.7
Molders, floor	4.5	2.5
Molders, hand, bench	2.0	3.9
Molders, machine	4.9	5.2
Melting	3.9	3.6
Cleaning and finishing	16.9	16.8
Chippers and grinders	9.2	7.0
Inspectors	2.0	3.0
Factory clerical	1.3	1.3
Material handling	5.1	2.6
Custodial (guards, janitors, and watchmen)	2.5	2.7
Other plant workers	31.2	29.1
Office workers	5.9	7.3
Total	100.0	100.0

Occupational structure varied noticeably with size of establishment in both branches of the industry. Workers engaged in molding and allied operations on the molding floor accounted for over one-third of the labor force in foundries employing 8 to 50 workers and for only one-seventh in large foundries with over 250 workers. Conversely, maintenance, inspection, machining, cleaning of castings, and material handling accounted for a much smaller proportion of total employment in small than in medium or large plants. These differences are traceable to the practicability of a finer division of labor in the larger establishments. In small plants, for example, maintenance and inspection are often performed by processing and supervisory workers, while molders and coremakers commonly perform auxiliary duties (e. g., pouring or shaking out molds) that are typically separate jobs in the larger plants.[8]

Few women were employed in this industry in January 1945. Only 5 percent of the plant workers in ferrous foundries were women and only 8 percent in nonferrous foundries. Nearly a third of the women in the ferrous branch and two-fifths in nonferrous foundries were employed in core-room work, which is relatively light.

[8] A detailed discussion of production processes and technological trends in this industry is provided in Employment Opportunities in Foundry Occupations, Monthly Labor Review, December 1945 (p. 1112).

Industrial Injuries

Industrial Injuries in Manufacturing, First Quarter of 1946

IN RELATION to the total amount of time worked, the volume of disabling work injuries experienced by employees of manufacturing establishments during the first quarter of 1946 was greater than that recorded for any 3-month period since the third quarter of 1944. However, because of the substantial reduction in the total amount of time worked, resulting from plant shut-downs due to strikes and reconversion activities, the actual volume of work injuries was less than in any quarter since before the war.

Reports from over 11,000 establishments indicate that in manufacturing as a whole there were on the average 18.2 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked during the first 3 months of 1946. This represents a slight increase over the average of 17.9 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked in the fourth quarter of 1945, and a somewhat greater increase over the average of 17.3 for the first quarter of 1945. On the basis of past records, this slight upswing in the injury frequency rate during the first quarter of the year appears to be a typical seasonal movement, probably associated with the usual increase in industrial activity after the end of the year. It is significant, however, that the all-manufacturing injury-frequency rates for the fourth quarter of 1945 and for the first quarter of 1946 were each higher than the rates for the corresponding quarters of the preceding years.

In spite of the general rise in the frequency of injuries in the plants which operated during the first 3 months of 1946, the actual total of disabling injuries recorded in the quarter was substantially less than in any other 3-month period since the beginning of World War II. Estimates based upon the available reports indicate that approximately 107,500 employees of manufacturing plants were disabled by work injuries in the first quarter of 1946. This represents 3,500 fewer injuries than occurred during the final quarter of 1945, and 51,500 fewer than occurred in the first quarter of 1945.

Current information indicates that about 400 of the workers who were injured during the first quarter of 1946 died as a result of their injuries and that about 4,200 others will have some form of physical impairment for the remainder of their lives. Because full information regarding the final outcome of many of the injuries, which were regarded as temporary at the time of reporting, will not be available for some time, it is impossible to evaluate the total cost of the first-quarter injuries. Without making any allowance for the time

losses which will continue into the future, a conservative estimate of the time loss resulting from first-quarter injuries would be at least 2,150,000 man-days of work.

Among the 111 separate manufacturing classifications for which comparison was possible there were relatively few significant changes in the injury-frequency rates recorded for the fourth quarter of 1945 and the first quarter of 1946. For 23 industry classifications the two rates differed by less than a single frequency-rate point. For 36 classifications the first-quarter rates were from 1 to 5 points higher than in the preceding period, while for 33 others they were 1 to 5 points lower. There were, however, substantial increases of 5 or more frequency-rate points in the rates for 14 industry classifications. These were, in part, balanced by similarly large decreases in the frequency rates of 5 other classifications. Most important among these changes in respect to their effect upon the all-manufacturing average were the increases in the frequency rates for iron foundries, steel foundries, planing mills, and combination saw and planing mills.

The best safety record achieved during the first quarter of 1946 by any of the industry groups included in the Bureau's survey was that of the explosives industry, which reported an average of only 4.1 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked. The women's and children's clothing manufacturing group held second place, with an average frequency rate of 4.4. In addition there were 15 other industry classifications with frequency rates of less than 10, which is generally recognized as representing good safety practice. In contrast to these low rates the wooden container industry had an average frequency rate of 44.8; iron foundries had an average of 46.1; sawmills had an average of 53.2; and integrated saw and planing mills had an average of 62.6.

The following table lists the injury-frequency rates for various specific manufacturing classifications during each month of the first quarter of 1946, together with averages for the quarter and for the year 1945.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, First Quarter of 1946, With Preliminary Annual Rates for 1945

Industry [2]	First quarter of 1946					1945: Annual frequency rate [4]
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				
		January	February	March	First quarter	
Apparel:						
Clothing, men's and boys'	363	8.1	8.3	7.7	8.0	8.7
Clothing, women's and children's	275	4.0	4.3	5.0	4.4	5.0
Trimmings and fabricated textile products, not elsewhere classified	62	14.1	10.7	17.0	13.9	19.5
Chemicals:						
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides	76	12.8	14.7	13.9	13.7	16.4
Explosives	48	3.3	3.2	5.7	4.1	4.8
Industrial chemicals	170	12.0	11.9	12.4	12.4	13.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	65	13.1	12.1	16.4	13.9	15.7
Plastic materials, except rubber	18	8.4	7.3	9.4	8.4	6.7
Soap and glycerin	56	9.4	8.3	7.8	8.5	9.8
Synthetic textile fibers	22	5.7	6.6	5.8	6.0	7.0
Chemical products, not elsewhere classified	63	13.8	31.4	18.7	21.1	15.1

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates [1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, First Quarter of 1946, With Preliminary Annual Rates for 1945—Continued

Industry [2]	First quarter of 1946					1945: Annual frequency rate [4]
	Number of establishments [3]	Frequency rate [4] for—				
		January	February	March	First quarter	
Electrical equipment:						
Automotive electrical equipment	19	13.2	10.4	10.8	11.5	12.1
Batteries	31	17.2	22.6	16.4	18.6	20.6
Communication and signaling equipment, except radio	30	10.2	11.8	9.0	10.2	6.7
Electrical appliances	34	13.8	9.3	16.5	13.3	12.9
Electrical equipment for industrial use	260	12.1	13.7	12.5	12.6	8.7
Electric lamps (bulbs)	16	6.1	4.0	5.9	5.7	4.4
Insulated wire and cable	28	18.4	36.9	21.4	25.1	17.2
Radios and phonographs	150	7.1	6.3	6.0	6.4	7.2
Electrical equipment, not elsewhere classified	25	10.3	3.8	14.6	9.8	7.5
Food:						
Baking	27	23.0	20.8	14.2	19.1	19.0
Canning and preserving	35	30.9	25.0	22.3	26.2	27.0
Confectionery	4	(5)	(5)	(5)	22.0	16.4
Dairy products	100	29.6	26.8	24.0	26.7	39.6
Distilleries	29	11.5	14.4	11.1	12.3	14.1
Flour, feed, and grain-mill products	7	23.7	12.9	11.2	16.0	22.2
Slaughtering and meat packing	407	42.0	36.1	32.0	36.8	32.5
Food products, not elsewhere classified	32	21.1	17.6	13.8	17.3	16.5
Furniture and lumber products:						
Furniture, wood	99	27.0	24.3	27.6	26.3	30.6
Mattresses and bedsprings	88	29.3	36.3	22.5	29.4	19.5
Wooden containers	282	43.3	50.4	41.2	44.8	39.1
Miscellaneous wood products, not elsewhere classified	108	34.8	31.4	22.1	29.3	33.4
Iron and steel:						
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	43	15.9	20.8	15.0	16.7	23.7
Cold finished steel	21	24.2	38.3	28.5	29.3	22.4
Cutlery and edge tools	38	18.3	18.6	15.9	17.5	24.3
Fabricated structural steel	238	31.6	36.6	28.7	31.9	29.5
Forgings, iron and steel	131	26.4	27.4	29.1	27.6	31.3
Foundries, iron	395	45.3	45.5	47.5	46.1	44.3
Foundries, steel	107	33.2	45.3	36.6	36.1	35.4
Hardware	57	15.5	13.2	16.1	15.0	15.5
Heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	87	24.0	25.1	27.9	25.7	31.8
Iron and steel	184	10.5	6.7	8.6	8.3	8.7
Metal coating and engraving	76	24.4	29.6	23.1	25.6	30.0
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products	148	38.3	34.9	33.9	35.8	33.0
Plumbers' supplies	46	26.8	26.0	30.0	27.7	15.4
Screw-machine products	114	18.9	16.7	16.4	17.4	15.1
Sheet-metal work	55	23.3	32.3	25.6	26.5	25.5
Stamped and pressed metal products, not elsewhere classified	243	18.5	16.9	20.8	18.8	22.0
Steam fittings and apparatus	59	22.5	24.9	23.2	23.5	20.8
Steel barrels, kegs, drums, and packages	31	23.8	18.9	17.1	20.1	33.0
Steel springs	14	26.7	24.3	19.4	23.5	21.4
Tin cans and other tinware	24	19.4	18.7	13.9	17.3	15.9
Tools, except edge tools	61	24.9	20.9	18.6	21.5	22.3
Wire and wire products	143	26.2	22.7	19.9	23.0	23.0
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy-riveted	11	(5)	(5)	(5)	18.1	19.2
Iron and steel products, not elsewhere classified	56	25.9	25.8	39.4	30.6	26.3
Leather:						
Boots and shoes, not rubber	258	10.7	10.7	10.6	10.7	13.0
Leather	19	32.2	28.8	28.1	29.6	28.7
Lumber:						
Millwork, structural	276	29.9	36.7	37.3	34.6	(6)
Sawmills	78	61.5	45.3	52.4	53.2	54.5
Sawmills and planing mills combined	35	65.2	54.9	67.3	62.6	51.6
Planing mills	103	(5)	(5)	(5)	39.9	36.7
Plywood mills	46	35.4	36.2	37.6	36.4	40.8
Machinery, except electric:						
Agricultural machinery and tractors	75	22.2	28.6	22.9	24.1	22.2
Bearings, ball and roller	30	13.9	14.3	17.1	15.1	16.6
Commercial and household machinery	106	13.1	13.4	12.7	13.0	15.0
Construction and mining machinery	128	24.4	22.4	26.4	24.5	23.5
Elevators, escalators, and conveyors	36	20.0	23.6	26.5	23.3	25.6
Engines and turbines	52	16.1	23.1	21.2	19.8	12.7
Food-products machinery	61	26.7	23.0	26.1	25.4	22.5

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency Rates[1] for Selected Manufacturing Industries, First Quarter of 1946, With Preliminary Annual Rates for 1945—Continued

Industry[2]	First quarter of 1946					1945: Annual frequency rate[6]
	Number of establishments[3]	Frequency rate[4] for—				
		January	February	March	First quarter	
Machinery, except electric—Continued						
General industrial machinery, not elsewhere classified	224	21.3	20.6	23.6	21.9	23.1
General machine shops (jobbing and repair)	115	24.0	16.6	16.5	19.0	18.1
Mechanical measuring and controlling instruments	66	16.7	14.5	11.3	14.2	11.7
Mechanical power transmission equipment, except ball and roller bearings	73	22.7	19.0	20.5	20.8	17.4
Metalworking machinery	525	15.1	14.3	16.0	15.1	15.3
Pumps and compressors	89	21.2	26.5	28.2	25.0	17.2
Special industry machinery, not elsewhere classified	115	27.9	29.8	24.3	27.2	23.1
Textile machinery	25	15.2	13.3	19.7	16.1	12.1
Nonferrous metals:						
Aluminum and magnesium products	13	(5)	(5)	(5)	26.8	17.7
Foundries, nonferrous	253	23.0	29.9	27.6	26.8	26.3
Nonferrous basic shapes and forms	23	13.9	15.0	17.5	15.4	19.3
Watches, clocks, jewelry, and silverware	30	8.8	8.0	8.3	8.4	7.4
Nonferrous metal products, not elsewhere classified	91	19.3	23.3	16.1	19.4	24.1
Ordnance:						
Ordnance and accessories[7]	42	10.4	8.2	8.3	9.0	(5)
Paper:						
Paper boxes and containers	363	24.2	25.7	24.1	24.6	24.3
Paper	264	31.7	33.6	31.8	32.3	28.8
Paper and pulp, integrated	110	26.3	27.6	22.7	25.5	23.1
Pulp	17	(5)	(5)	(5)	39.9	35.4
Paper products, not elsewhere classified	31	26.1	20.6	17.7	21.4	21.5
Printing:						
Book and job printing	34	10.4	11.2	7.4	9.6	10.4
Rubber:						
Rubber boots and shoes	14	10.0	10.4	12.3	11.0	9.6
Rubber tires and tubes	31	12.3	14.5	15.0	13.9	13.7
Rubber products, not elsewhere classified	79	20.0	20.0	20.9	20.3	17.3
Stone, clay, and glass:						
Structural clay products	25	(5)	(5)	(5)	22.8	30.2
Glass	39	15.1	14.2	16.4	15.3	16.1
Pottery and related products	32	21.1	19.8	21.4	20.8	22.1
Stone, clay, and glass products, not elsewhere classified	51	17.5	13.8	16.1	15.8	16.2
Textiles:						
Cotton yarn and textiles	197	14.8	13.4	11.9	13.3	13.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles	50	16.4	18.1	19.0	17.8	16.2
Knit goods	85	10.4	12.6	7.7	10.1	9.7
Rayon, other synthetic, and silk textiles	50	6.4	10.5	10.8	9.2	12.5
Woolen and worsted textiles	144	17.6	16.3	18.5	17.5	18.6
Transportation equipment:						
Aircraft	20	7.8	4.7	4.8	5.7	8.7
Aircraft parts	46	11.9	12.2	11.7	11.9	12.0
Motor vehicles	90	13.0	10.5	10.9	11.5	16.6
Motor-vehicle parts	103	24.0	23.5	22.7	23.4	20.8
Railroad equipment	43	26.7	26.2	21.8	25.1	22.2
Shipbuilding	141	23.3	21.0	23.7	22.6	22.2
Miscellaneous manufacturing:						
Fabricated plastic products	40	17.5	17.1	11.8	15.4	14.7
Optical and ophthalmic goods	20	6.0	3.8	5.0	5.0	7.2
Photographic apparatus and materials	29	6.9	8.1	8.0	7.7	6.6
Professional and scientific instruments and supplies	66	12.8	9.7	7.9	10.4	7.5
Miscellaneous manufacturing, not elsewhere classified	203	17.4	17.5	18.0	17.6	13.9

[1] The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.
[2] A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amoun to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked
[3] Number of establishments shown are for March.
[4] Computed from all reports received for the month; not based on identical plants in successive month
[5] Not available.
[6] Preliminary.
[7] Includes all ordnance classifications formerly shown separately.

Accident Prevention in the Brewing Industry[1]

BECAUSE the accident record of the brewing industry is higher than that of most other manufacturing industries, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has made the present report to indicate some of the specific measures which may be employed to improve that record.[2] Recommendations for safety, place major emphasis upon the determination of the unsafe working conditions, which may be controlled by management, and of the unsafe acts, which employees and management can eliminate through joint action.

Unsafe Working Conditions

It is apparent from the analysis that certain unsafe working conditions exist in many breweries and that a large proportion of the injuries experienced by brewery workers may be ascribed directly to these unsafe conditions. In most instances only a few simple precautionary measures are necessary to correct these conditions. The most important of these are listed below. No safety program will be complete if it is limited to the measures enumerated, but substantial improvement in the industry's accident record could be achieved if these safety measures were established in every brewery.

1. Machines and conveyors which carry bottles should be completely enclosed to eliminate the hazard of flying glass in the event of a bottle explosion.
2. The nip points on all power conveyors should be fully guarded and all conveyors should be equipped with rails or guides to prevent materials from falling from the conveyors.
3. The space under conveyors should be closed off so that employees cannot pass under them except at designated passageways. Where there is insufficient head room for passageways under conveyors, steps or stiles should be built to provide safe cross-overs.
4. Adequate guards should be provided at the point of operation of all machines and over all gears, pulleys, belts, or other moving parts of machines.
5. All delivery trucks and trailers should be equipped with steps and hand holds to provide safe access to the body of the vehicles.
6. All bottles should be tested under pressure for strength before filling.
7. All barrels, cartons, and cases should be inspected for rough edges, projecting nails, and embedded pieces of glass or metal as well as for other defects.
8. All premises, equipment, and hand tools should be inspected frequently and immediately replaced or repaired if found to be defective.
9. Guard rails or hand rails should be installed on all platforms and stairways. Stiles over conveyors should have hand rails on each side.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Hazards Division by Frank S. McElroy and George R. McCormack.

[2] Based upon detailed records of 4,276 disabling injuries in 82 breweries, located in 15 States and employing 38,000 workers. A previous report, Work Injuries in Breweries During 1944, Monthly Labor Review, August 1944 (pp. 264-272), will be combined with this report and with additional material in a bulletin to be issued soon.

10. All portable ladders should be equipped with ladder safety shoes. Substantially anchored permanent ladders should be provided wherever frequent access to particular elevations is necessary.

11. Guide rails or runways should be provided wherever it is customary to move barrels or kegs by rolling. These runways should slope slightly toward the destination of the barrels to prevent their rolling back.

12. Nonslip surfaces should be provided in all working areas and on all stairways and steps.

13. Personal protective equipment should be provided where needed and employees should be required to use such equipment.

14. Adequate provision should be made for the safe removal of broken glass from machines, conveyors, and floors; and employees should be thoroughly trained in the safe performance of this function.

15. Mechanical equipment should be used in the moving of filled barrels, kegs, and cases wherever possible both in the plant and in making deliveries. Where mechanical equipment cannot be used, limits should be set upon the weights to be handled by individuals and adequate assistance provided when overweight or awkward materials must be lifted.

16. Housekeeping conditions generally should be improved, with particular attention to the prompt removal of tripping and slipping hazards.

HAZARDOUS ARRANGEMENTS AND PROCEDURES

More than 43 percent of the accidents which occurred because of an unsafe working condition were caused by hazardous arrangements or procedures in operations which normally can be carried on safely. Such hazards were particularly prominent in the brewhouse and delivery departments. The most common unsafe procedure was that of laying out material-handling operations without provision for the use of mechanical equipment or adequate assistance to insure safety in lifting.

Generally, brewery safety engineers agreed that the maximum weight which any worker should be expected or permitted to lift or to push up an incline without assistance should not exceed that of a filled quarter barrel or a single case of beer. The accident record, however, indicated a number of instances in which over-limit loads were being handled. Assignment of additional help when heavy materials are to be handled, however, cannot be considered an effective solution for this problem. In many of the reported cases of overlifting sufficient help had been provided, but workers had had no training in working as a team.

Basically it should be the duty of the immediate supervisor to see that proper safe procedures are followed in handling heavy materials. He should be held responsible for training the workers in those safe procedures and should be expected to observe such operations closely to insure that violations are quickly discovered and corrected.

Unsafely stored or piled kegs, barrels, cartons, or cases also contributed to a substantial volume of accidents in the delivery departments and, to a somewhat lesser volume, in the brewhouse and bottling departments. Unstable piling was the chief unsafe condition in this category. Generally, these conditions resulted from piling containers

on irregular surfaces or from a failure to interlock properly the tiers in the piles. In some instances, it was reported that kegs were piled on their sides without sufficient blocking to keep the bottom tier from rolling. The lack of proper bracing to hold barrels or cases in trucks or freight cars also caused many injuries when gates or doors were opened for unloading. In numerous reported instances, workers were injured in reaching above their heads to place or remove materials at the top of piles, or fell when they attempted to climb up or down the vertical side of a pile. Strict limitations upon the height of hand lifts and the construction of stepped piles will do much to avoid such accidents.

Tripping and bumping hazards, created by misplaced material or debris in walkways or on working surfaces caused many accidents in each of the three departments (bottling, brewhouse, and delivery) but were most prominent in the bottling and brewhouse departments. Broken glass on the floor was the chief hazard of this type in the bottling departments. Most plants had rules that broken glass should be cleaned up promptly, but generally enforcement was rather lax. Dust pans and brooms should be used for this work and gloves should be worn when it is necessary to handle the broken material. In the operation of some machines, however, the use of gloves is a definite hazard; the gloves may easily become caught in the moving parts and pull the operator's hands into the machine. When the operators are required to clean up broken glass around their workplaces they must be trained to remove their gloves before returning to their machines.

The principal tripping hazards in the brewhouse departments were created by hose lines lying on the floor. In some sections the complete elimination of this hazard is probably impossible without extensive plant remodeling. In new units, however, there seems to be little reason why facilities cannot be incorporated which will eliminate practically all of these hazards. Existing plants can minimize the hose hazard by providing fenced or marked-off areas or lanes in which hose lines may be laid, particularly when not in actual use. Where hose lines must cross aisles or walkways, it is frequently possible to carry them overhead, or to place warning standards over them, thus eliminating some tripping. The use of white hose will also attract attention and thereby prevent some accidents.

A substantial number of falls were reported to have occurred because bottles or other materials were left on steps or in passages. Such poor housekeeping within a plant is inexcusable evidence of lax supervision. Delivery department records showed numerous cases of such falls on the premises of customers. Brewery management can exercise little control over unsafe conditions on the customer's premises, but delivery personnel can be specially trained to acquaint them with methods of overcoming hazards encountered outside the plant. Such training probably should include instructions not to carry or move any materials into a customer's premises until the route is thoroughly checked for tripping, bumping, or falling hazards. Any such hazards probably should be reported both to the customer and to the delivery superintendent. When extreme hazards or frequently recurring hazards are encountered it would be advisable for a company representative to visit the customer and insist on improvements.

The number of accidents in which workers were struck by barrels rolling from the racking machines or experienced strains or sprains as a result of kicking barrels into motion indicates a need for completely revamped procedures. It was common for the racking-machine operator to start the filled barrels rolling by kicking them and to allow them to roll freely across the floor away from the machine. In some plants, the floor was constructed with a slight slope away from the racking machine; in others the floor was level. The freely rolling barrels frequently left their intended path and at times struck workers or machines. The employee engaged in moving the barrels from the floor to the conveyor or to the storage racks was constantly faced with the possibility of being struck by the freely rolling barrels. Many plants eliminated these hazards by installing a sloping track on which the barrels are rolled directly from the racking machine to the point of transfer to the conveyor or storage racks. Good safety practice should also bar the kicking of barrels into motion.

In the bottling departments many reported injuries resulted from employees striking their heads as they attempted to walk under conveyors. Some plants tried to minimize such bumping hazards by placing pads (sometimes discarded beer hose) over the corners and projections on the underside of conveyors. This procedure, however, cannot be recommended, except as a temporary expedient. All spaces under conveyors which do not have sufficient head room to be used as passageways by persons walking erect should be barricaded. When walkways are necessary to cross conveyors at points where head room is insufficient under the conveyors, steps or stiles should be provided.

The hazards connected with cleaning tanks are generally well known in the brewing industry, but the volume of injuries incurred in this operation indicates frequent neglect of the proper precautionary measures. Workers who must enter closed spaces where there is any possibility of toxic fumes or of oxygen deficiency should be furnished with air-line respirators and life lines. The door into any tank in which work is being done should be blocked open and posted with a prominent notice that employees are inside, and the valves on all pipes leading into the tank should be locked in closed position. Because of the great slipping hazards inside most tanks, particular attention must be given to the design and manner of using the necessary equipment. Ladders in use should be anchored at the top, if at all possible. In any event, all ladders should be equipped with effective nonslip ladder safety shoes. Generally, however, the preferable safety measure is to substitute scaffolds for ladders.

It is doubtful if any safety engineer, representative of management, machine operator, or maintenance man will question the fundamental safety rule that no cleaning, repairing, or adjusting of machinery or other moving equipment should be performed while it is in operation. Nevertheless, injuries resulting from violations of this rule were relatively frequent in the brewing industry. This indicates that many supervisors were permitting if not encouraging this procedure. Workers were frequently caught in moving parts while removing broken glass from machines or while cleaning beneath machines. Others were injured while repairing or adjusting machines

during regular production operations. Similarly, in numerous instances employees were injured in attempting to release materials which had jammed on conveyors without first stopping the conveyors. In other instances, workers who were repairing or adjusting stopped machines were injured when other persons started the machines. Thorough training in the safe methods of cleaning, adjusting, or repairing machines for all employees who work on or about machines and strict supervision to enforce the instructions are essential for the elimination of such accidents. Moreover, the control switch on every machine or power circuit should be constructed so that it may be padlocked in its open position, and repair men should be required to lock any machine or power circuit before starting work.

In the delivery departments there was a considerable volume of accidents in which workers fell while attempting to climb into or out of trucks which were not equipped with steps or footrests for use in entering or leaving the truck body. In several instances, side or end gates were utilized as ladders and the employees were thrown to the ground when the gate slipped. Although enforcement is difficult when employees are working away from the plant, management should see that delivery personnel are thoroughly instructed in safe procedures. Each driver should be responsible for the enforcement of safe procedures on the part of his helpers. Management should also see that every truck is equipped with steps and hand holds. Ropes used as hand holds should be inspected frequently and renewed at the first sign of wear or weakness.

Other unsafe practices which led to numerous accidents included the use of barrels or cases as platforms or in place of ladders, and allowing operations to extend into aisles or passageways. Safe ladders, platforms, or scaffolds should be made easily available for use when it is necessary for any one to work at levels beyond easy reach from the floor; the use of boxes or barrels for such purposes should be strictly prohibited. Frequently traveled aisles or passageways should be fenced insofar as practicable. If fencing is impracticable, the boundaries of the aisles should be marked with painted stripes and the area between the stripes should be kept clear at all times.

DEFECTS CAUSING ACCIDENTS

Unfortunately, the record indicates that in many breweries the safety and safety-inspection standards appear to be much below those applied to product quality. In the brewhouse, for instance, barrels are inspected for cleanliness and strength, yet numerous injuries resulted from contact with projecting metal or glass imbedded in the barrels. Similarly, in the bottling department the bottles passed through several inspections during the various operations, but many bottle explosions were ascribed to defective bottles by the plant safety engineers.

In the aggregate, 40 percent of all the accidents associated with any unsafe working condition were attributed to defects in materials and equipment. In the bottling departments the proportion was 46 percent; in the brewhouse it was 34 percent; and in the delivery department it was 36 percent.

Slippery or otherwise defective working surfaces were the most common of all unsafe working conditions. Wet floors caused many slips and falls, particularly in the brewhouse departments. This hazard was generally recognized and most of the breweries which were visited were making an effort to overcome it. In one plant, large fans had been installed to speed the drying of the floors through evaporation. The most effective installation was nonslip flooring, several varieties of which are available commercially. Slippery stairways also caused a considerable number of injuries. Nonslip surfaces on the stair treads and stout hand rails on both sides should be considered as absolute minimum provisions for safety. Holes, bumps, and other irregularities in floors, roadways, and platforms were also responsible for a number of injury-producing accidents. Most of these conditions were the result of wear or gradual deterioration resulting from inadequate maintenance.

Defects in the vehicles or their parts were directly responsible for a third of all the accidents involving vehicles. Falls on or from slippery truck bodies were the most common accidents in this group. From the continual sliding of heavy materials over the metal surfaces of truck bodies, surfaces wear smooth and are slippery when wet. Therefore, it is advisable to install some form of corrugated or other nonslip truck flooring. Corrugated surfaces should also be provided and maintained in rough condition on all steps used for entrance into trucks. In a number of cases it was reported that ropes, which were being used as hand holds to assist employees in climbing into trucks, had broken and caused the workers to fall. Such ropes should be inspected regularly and should be replaced on discovery of the first sign of wear. During the period covered by the survey, many of the plant garages were understaffed because of the difficulty in finding competent automobile mechanics. For this reason, the trucks were frequently operated while in need of repairs and rather numerous accidents resulted from efforts to start motors by cranking when the starting units failed.

Most breweries inspect cartons and cases before putting them into service. However, substantial evidence existed that this inspection was not sufficiently thorough. A considerable number of injuries were caused by the bottoms dropping out of filled cases and some times more than one person was injured by flying glass from the bursting bottles. Sharp or splintered edges on the cases also produced many hand injuries. Similarly, loose or bent ends of wire or metal strapping on cartons and loose hoops on barrels or kegs frequently caused injuries.

INADEQUATE GUARDS

About 15 percent of the accidents arising from unsafe working conditions resulted from a lack of adequate guards on machines, elevators, conveyors, or other hazardous equipment. This proportion is relatively small in comparison with the volume of accidents resulting from hazardous arrangements or procedures or from defects. However, 1 in every 11 of the accidents caused by inadequate guards resulted in an injury involving death or some form of permanent impairment.

The need for guards was apparent in all three of the major plant departments, but the departmental record indicates that efforts to improve conditions should be emphasized particularly in the bottling departments. In such departments 1 in every 4 of the disabling injuries resulted from accidents which could be traced to the need for some form of a guard.

Specifically, adequate guards on machines and conveyors were needed to protect the workers from the hazard of being struck by flying glass from bottle explosions. Some breweries had partially solved this problem, but no instances of complete guarding were observed in the course of this survey. Guards were generally provided at the filling machines and many plants had installed shatterproof glass panels at the inspection points along bottle-conveyor lines. Only one plant had tried to guard an entire bottle-conveyor line, and the guard had been applied only to the conveyors carrying the larger-sized bottles. Fine mesh wire completely enclosed the conveyor line and was constructed in sections which could be opened to remove bottles or parts of bottles from the line. Shatterproof glass replaced the wire at the inspection points.

In many bottling departments impact goggles were provided for protection against eye injuries and some plants required all employees in the department to wear goggles. In most instances the plant safety engineers reported difficulty in convincing the workers of the necessity of wearing goggles at all times. Other plants had experimented with the use of face shields to protect the entire face from flying glass. Almost invariably resistance was encountered among the workers who objected to the shields on the grounds of weight and discomfort, particularly in warm weather. Nevertheless, in the absence of complete guarding on the machines and conveyors, all bottling department workers should wear goggles, thereby practically eliminating eye injuries (the most serious cases resulting from bottle explosions). As goggles do not afford face protection, face shields may be preferable to goggles. In the final analysis, effective permanent guards should be utilized to prevent fragments from flying into the air.

In addition, many conveyors in breweries were inadequately equipped with guards to prevent other types of accidents. Many conveyors used for moving cases and cartons lacked side rails to keep materials from falling off the conveyor surface, and on many of the belt conveyors the ends of the rollers were exposed so that it was not uncommon for workers to catch their hands or fingers in the mechanisms. Similarly, in a number of instances workers' hands were pulled by the belt into the space between the last belt roller and the first of the free rollers at the end of belt lines. Under good safety practice the first free roller would be spaced 3 or 4 inches from the end of the belt to prevent the hand from being caught before it could be withdrawn. The first free roller should also be set in open slots from which it can be lifted rather than to have it fixed firmly in place. With this type of design a back pull on the hand or object which might become caught between the end of the belt and the free roller will cause the free roller to rise in the slots and thereby release the pinching pressure.

The lack of adequate guards on other types of machines, on elevators, elevated working surfaces, stairways, and ladders also resulted

in numerous accidents. Those caused by unguarded gears, pulleys, and points-of-operation of machines, and unguarded elevators often resulted in very serious injuries. The number of injuries resulting from falls from low platforms often used in breweries indicates strongly the need for guard rails at the edge of all elevated working surfaces, regardless of their height. Similarly, the stiles or steps over conveyor lines which commonly are constructed with a hand rail on only one side should have substantial hand rails on both sides. The record also indicated that many of the ladders used in breweries were without ladder safety shoes which should be considered a minimum safety requirement for all straight ladders. In addition, if ladders are used repeatedly at the same location, facilities should be provided for anchoring them at the top, or permanently constructed fixed ladders should be erected.

Unsafe Acts

Unsafe acts commonly result from a lack of knowledge of the proper safe procedure or from a failure to appreciate the seriousness of hazards created by such acts. The elimination of unsafe acts requires continuing instruction in safety for both old and new employees, coupled with strict supervision and, in some cases, disciplinary action to prevent recurrences.

Most of the brewery accidents which occurred because of the commission of an unsafe act were associated with (1) the assuming of an unsafe position or posture; and (2) the use of unsafe equipment or equipment in an unsafe manner. Analysis indicated that a program of instruction and enforcement for the elimination of accident-producing unsafe acts should emphasize proper methods for (1) lifting, carrying, and other handling of barrels, kegs, cases, and cartons; (2) piling of materials and equipment, particularly kegs and cases; and (3) the removal of broken glass from equipment and floors.

UNSAFE POSITION OR POSTURE

More than half of the accidents resulting from unsafe acts were the direct outcome of the injured person's placing himself unnecessarily in an unsafe position or posture. Five of the six fatal accidents reported by the 82 breweries reporting were classified in this general group.

Most prominent among the specific actions designated as assuming an unsafe position or posture were inattention to footing; lifting unsafely; running or jumping; working, standing, or walking in the path of moving vehicles; climbing on boxes or barrels instead of using ladders; taking shortcuts instead of using the provided walkways, particularly in respect to crawling under or climbing over conveyors; and attempting to adjust or repair moving equipment.

Inattention to footing was a common source of injury in all brewery departments. In the delivery departments most of these instances occurred in the course of climbing into or out of trucks or freight cars. In the other departments accidents on stairways and ladders were frequently ascribed to inattention to footing.

Injuries resulting from manual lifting of heavy objects are a serious problem in breweries. Every such accident involves the lifting of

excessive weight—that is, excessive under the existing circumstances for the individual involved. Variations in the strength and skill of different individuals make it difficult if not impossible to determine the safe maximum weight to be lifted by one person. However, a knowledge of and the strict application of proper lifting procedure—lifting with the legs instead of the back—will render safe the handling of greater weights than is safe by hit or miss procedures. In classifying the lifting accidents, an effort was made to exclude those cases in which individuals attempted to lift weights which obviously should have been handled mechanically or by a team. As far as possible, those included represent injuries which resulted from lifting weights ordinarily handled by individuals and normally considered to be within the lifting ability of most workers. These cases represented 10 percent of all accidents resulting from unsafe acts.

Most injured persons can report only that in lifting, pain was suddenly felt. Only rarely has a witness observed the operation with sufficient care to identify accurately the specific faulty procedure. It is well known, however, that strains, sprains, and hernias frequently result from lifting with the back muscles instead of the leg muscles; from lifting in cramped or awkward positions; or from lifting while standing on irregular or insecure surfaces. Most of the accidents in this group undoubtedly resulted from the lifter assuming one or the other of these unsafe lifting positions.

USE OF UNSAFE EQUIPMENT OR USING EQUIPMENT UNSAFELY

Relatively few injuries resulted from the use of unsafe mechanical equipment or from the use of mechanical equipment unsafely. Over one-fourth of all the cases resulted from the unsafe act of gripping objects insecurely or taking hold of objects incorrectly. In most of these accidents heavy objects, such as barrels, kegs, cases, or cartons, slipped from the hands of workers and fell upon their feet. There were, however, numerous instances in which workers crushed their fingers while piling cases or kegs. In the bottling departments, numerous employees mashed their fingers when the cases which they were removing were struck by other cases moving upon the conveyors.

Insistence upon the general use of steel-toed safety shoes by all workers who handle heavy materials would materially lessen the volume of injuries resulting from improper handling methods. The elimination of such accidents, however, requires intensive instruction in the proper procedures and close supervision to insure their observance.

The unsafe act of picking up broken glass with bare hands instead of using brushes and dust pans, and the practice of attempting to remove broken bottles from conveyors or machines by hand instead of using the tools generally provided for this purpose, were responsible for many cut fingers in the bottling departments. The elimination of these unsafe acts is largely dependent upon the development of worker interest in safety and strict supervision to enforce rules prohibiting such practices.

OTHER UNSAFE ACTS

In the general category of unsafe arrangement or placement of materials and equipment, stacking materials in insecure piles was outstanding. The improper placement of equipment, however, was of nearly equal importance, as, for example, the placement and use of portable slides or chutes without seeing that they were securely anchored in place.

Other types of unsafe acts, which produced accidents in sufficient volume to indicate that they are fairly common in brewery operations, included operating equipment without authority; failing to shut off equipment when not in use; operating equipment at unsafe speeds; and failing to use proper safety equipment or proper clothing.

Labor-Management Disputes

Recent Major Controversies

BY THE end of June 1946 the round of work stoppages which began the previous autumn, and which moved from one crest to another during the winter and spring of 1946, appeared to be virtually completed. Settlement of the CIO maritime labor situation in mid-June without a widespread work stoppage seemed to clear the horizon for at least a month or more of the possibility of any large, industry-wide work stoppages. Records of both the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U. S. Conciliation Service reflected a general downward trend in the number of new work stoppages since the beginning of May.

Strike Averted in Maritime Industry

A serious intercoastal shipping strike, scheduled for June 15, by about 200,000 members of six CIO Unions and one unaffiliated union, represented by the Committee for Maritime Unity, was averted by a last-minute settlement worked out by the United States Conciliation Service in cooperation with the War Shipping Administration. The War Shipping Administration, which currently operates about 2,400 of the 3,100 dry cargo ships in the merchant marine, entered the negotiations between the ship operators and the unions on June 10 and a few days later directed those operators acting as agents of the Government to agree to certain specified wage increases and changes in hours of work. CIO president Philip Murray also participated in the final negotiations.

For seagoing personnel, the major provisions of the settlement include a straight-time wage increase of $17.50 per month, retroactive to April 1, 1946, reduction of the workweek in port from 44 to 40 hours with Saturday and Sunday considered overtime days, establishment of a basic 48-hour workweek at sea with overtime pay for Sunday work and hours in excess of 48. An increase in the overtime rate from 85 cents to $1.00 per hour was provided, together with an understanding that remaining disputed issues be resolved by further joint negotiations, or if necessary, arbitration.

Longshoremen on the Pacific Coast obtained a wage increase of 22 cents an hour retroactive to October 1, 1945, as recommended by a fact-finding board which had previously considered the controversy between the International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union and the Waterfront Employers Association of the Pacific Coast.

The dispute originated in the autumn of 1945, with wage demands to compensate for the loss of wartime premium pay amounting to as

much as $100 monthly above base pay. Shortly after the close of the war, the National War Labor Board granted a $45 per month increase to all licensed and unlicensed personnel as partial compensation for cancellation of the wartime risk bonuses. The unions accepted this adjustment but also filed additional demands for a 30-percent wage increase and a basic 40-hour workweek. In the negotiations which followed, the shipping and stevedore companies bargained through three employer associations: The Committee for General Agents for the War Shipping Administration and Atlantic and Gulf Ports (the American Merchant Marine Institute), the Pacific-American Shipowners Association, and the Waterfront Employers Association of the Pacific Coast.

Dissatisfaction with lack of progress in the negotiations led representatives of seven unions to meet early in May in San Francisco and on May 11 schedule a strike for June 15. For purposes of concerted action, they established a Committee for Maritime Unity. This committee was composed of the National Maritime Union, International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union, American Communications Association, National Association of Marine Cooks and Stewards, National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association, Inland Boatmen's Union of the Pacific all CIO and the independent Pacific Coast Marine Firemen, Oilers, Watertenders and Wipers Association.

The contracts of five of these unions had expired by May; agreements of the other two unions—the Inland Boatmen's Union and National Marine Engineers Beneficial Association—had not expired, but these groups joined the other members of the committee to maintain a united front. The Pacific Coast longshoremen, members of the CIO International Longshoremen's and Warehousemen's Union, had been parties before a fact-finding board appointed by the Secretary of Labor early in April to investigate their dispute with the Waterfront Employers Association of the Pacific Coast. This board, in its report on May 13, recommended a 22-cent hourly increase, retroactive to October 1, 1945, instead of the 35-cent increase requested by the union. The employers indicated acceptance of the report, on condition that the Federal contracting agencies would pay the retroactive portion of the increase. The ILWU, subscribing to the plans of the Committee for Maritime Unity for joint strike action, remained noncommittal as to whether it would accept the board's recommendations.

Late in May, leaders of the National Maritime Union and spokesmen representing ship operators on the East and Gulf Coasts reached an understanding providing for a wage increase of $12.50 a month, and overtime pay increases ranging from 5 to 15 cents an hour. Rank-and-file members of the NMU on May 27 rejected these terms. The Secretary of Labor summoned representatives of the unions and the ship operators to meet in Washington on May 29 for further negotiations under his direction, warning of the serious effects a work stoppage would have upon foreign trade and relief to stricken countries abroad. On May 31, President Truman announced that the Government would use the Army, Navy, and Coast Guard to man the ships should the strike occur, and the Secretary of the Navy issued orders on June 3 designed to recruit the necessary personnel.

Union leaders protested these actions, claiming that the President was "torpedoing" the negotiations and strengthening the stand of the

operators. The President, in turn, characterized his actions as "purely precautionary" and called upon the parties to "buckle down and settle this matter through collective bargaining." Also chafing under the slow course of their separate negotiations with ship operators, and resenting suggestions of possible Government operation of the industry, the AFL Seafarers International Union staged a 4-hour stoppage on Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf ports on June 6. SIU officials warned that its members would walk out immediately should the Government attempt to man the ships.

Negotiations in Washington continued throughout the first half of June, with the major obstacle to a settlement reported to center in the unions' demands for a 40-hour week in port and a 44-hour week at sea. The operators offered a 40-hour week in continental ports of the United States and suggested a compromise of 1 day off each week while at sea.

On June 10, the War Shipping Administrator, Granville Conway, entered the negotiations and together with Assistant Secretary of Labor John W. Gibson, and Conciliation Service officials sought to bring about an agreement between the CIO union leaders and representatives of the ship operators. Subsequently, on June 13, Captain Conway directed all WSA general agents or their representatives to accept his proposals for unlicensed personnel as to wages, hours, and collateral issues. The following day he also directed the Pacific-American Shipowners Association to accept proposals relating to hours at sea and in port with respect to licensed personnel, except the masters and chief engineers, in order to establish parity between them and the unlicensed personnel. These terms formed the basis of the agreements which were adopted by the seagoing unions and their employers. The longshoremen's union, in turn, accepted the recommendations of the fact-finding board.

Railroad Controversy Results in 2-Day Stoppage

Members of the Brotherhoods of Locomotive Engineers and Railroad Trainmen stopped work at 4:00 p. m., May 23, 1946, in the first widespread strike of the railroad operating brotherhoods since 1888. Approximately 350 thousand railroad employees were made idle. The stoppage, which brought all major rail traffic to a standstill, followed months of negotiations, rejection by the two unions of the recommendations of a fact-finding board appointed under the Railway Labor Act, and a last-minute 5-day truce arranged by President Truman which postponed strike action from May 18 to May 23. The final outcome of the controversy was a Government-negotiated agreement providing for an hourly increase of 18½ cents and a 1-year moratorium on all proposed changes in rules.

In July 1945, the two brotherhoods formally submitted requests to the railroads for a 25-percent increase in wage rates, with a minimum increase of $2.50 a day. In addition, they asked for standardization of basic rates of pay on a country-wide basis, revision of initial and final terminal delay rules, night differentials, and time and one-half pay for Sunday and holiday work, limitations on the length of trains, and other adjustments involving a total of 44 changes in working rules. At the same time, the class I carriers, comprising the

Nation's major railroads, submitted 29 counterproposals for changes in working rules.

Joint conferences between the carriers and the unions were held in November and continued until December 13, when the carriers invoked the services of the National Mediation Board, claiming that negotiations had reached a stalemate. Efforts to reach a settlement by mediation or to induce the engineers and trainmen to postpone their demands for changes in the working rules, pending arbitration of their wage demands, were unsuccessful.

On February 1, 1946, the unions submitted a strike ballot to their members which resulted in a 98½-percent vote for a stoppage unless their demands were satisfactorily met. The unions thereupon made plans for a progressive withdrawal from service beginning on March 11. In anticipation of this action the President, by Executive order on March 8, created an emergency board to investigate the issues.

Consideration of the case of the engineers and trainmen was complicated by the fact that two arbitration boards were meeting concurrently, the first to consider demands for an increase of 30 cents an hour for 15 nonoperating railway unions representing about 1,000,000 rail workers, and the second to consider increases for the three other operating brotherhoods representing firemen, conductors, and switchmen. On April 3 the arbitration boards each awarded an increase of 16 cents in the basic hourly rates. The emergency board's recommendations, submitted to the President on April 18, called for like adjustments for the trainmen and locomotive engineers—16 cents per hour or $1.28 per basic day. The Board termed some of the union's and the carrier's proposals for changes in the working rules "extreme" and, while making a few recommendations, returned most of the proposals to the parties for further negotiation, their technicality and complexity making it impossible for the Board to make recommendations in the allotted time. The trainmen and engineers rejected the Board's recommendation and indicated they would withdraw from service May 18 unless more satisfactory wage and rule concessions were obtained from the carriers.

On May 14, railroad and union officials were summoned to separate conferences with Government officials at the White House in an effort to avert the threatened stoppage. When these negotiations failed, the President took over all major railroads by Executive order effective 4:00 p. m., e. s. t., May 17. The Office of Defense Transportation was placed in control of operations. With the outlook that only hospital, troop, and milk trains would operate after the strike deadline, preparations were made for utilization by the Government of all alternative transportation facilities.

Shortly before the strike was scheduled to begin union officials, at the request of President Truman, postponed the stoppage for 5 days—to 4:00 p. m. on May 23, and returned to Washington to resume negotiations. On May 22, the railroads and the 18 unions, parties to the two arbitration cases, accepted a compromise proposal of the President for an 18½-cent hourly wage increase, and for withdrawal for 1 year of all requests for changes in working rules. The next day leaders of the trainmen and engineers rejected this settlement, contending that it was less favorable than the recommendations of the emergency board which had considered their case. The deadlock remained

unbroken and the stoppage took place as planned by the two unions. Trains scheduled to leave terminals after 4 o'clock on May 23 did not move and those en route at that hour proceeded to specified terminals before being stopped. A few lines operated skeleton services, manned largely by supervisory railroad employees.

Conferences of Government officials with representatives of the carriers and the two brotherhoods continued on May 24, and that night the President discussed the situation by radio, requesting the men to return to work and warning that the Government would take steps to operate the trains. The next day he appeared before a joint session of Congress seeking emergency legislation giving him power to prevent future strikes which would have such widespread effects on the public and the Nation's economy. Almost simultaneously with his appearance before Congress, union officials signed an agreement accepting the President's proposal of May 22, and issued a back-to-work order. Union members soon returned to their jobs, and service was restored after the stoppage of 2 days. The railroads were returned to private control May 26.

Anthracite Controversy

With the expiration of their contract, and failure to agree on terms of renewal, approximately 75,000 Pennsylvania anthracite miners, members of the United Mine Workers of America (AFL), remained away from the pits from May 31, 1946, until after agreement was reached June 7 on a new contract. Negotiations between the union's scale committee and the mine operators began May 10. Major UMWA demands included a 30-percent wage increase, a health and welfare fund, and higher vacation pay. On June 7 an agreement was reached generally similar to that adopted for the bituminous-coal industry. The men obtained an hourly wage increase of 18½ cents, a health and welfare fund to be financed by a payment of 5 cents per ton on all coal mined, and vacation pay of $100 per year instead of the $75 previously received.

American Smelting and Refining Strike Terminated

The 5-month strike of the Mine, Mill and Smelter Workers (CIO) against the American Smelting and Refining Co., involving approximately 5,000 employees in 19 plants scattered from coast to coast, was terminated by an agreement on June 11, providing for an 18½-cent wage increase as recommended April 29 by a fact-finding board appointed by Secretary of Labor Schwellenbach. Under the terms of the agreement one-half of the wage increase (9¼ cents) was retroactive to October 1, 1945. In two of the company's plants, Newark and Perth Amboy, N. J., the retroactive portion of the increase extended only to mid-November 1945 in accordance with the expiration date of previous agreements, and company observance of the area practice of compensating for 6 holidays. The agreement also provided that employees on strike would return to work without discrimination by the company, and that the union would not invoke its security provisions against any employee "because of any act done or permitted to be done by such employee during the strike."

Days lost because of the strike are to be computed as days worked for the purpose of meeting vacation qualification clauses.

The settlement with the American Smelting and Refining Co. followed the pattern of recent nonferrous metal agreements worked out by the CIO union with 26 companies in the Coeur D'Alene District, with the Anaconda Copper Mining Co. and with others. Toward the end of June generally similar wage settlements were announced covering the strike-bound plants of Kennecott Copper Corp., Phelps Dodge Corp., and U. S. Smelting, Refining and Mining Co.

General 1-Day Stoppage in Rochester, N. Y.

A joint demonstration of AFL and CIO organizations in Rochester, N. Y., involved a reported 26,000 union workers on May 28, 1946. The action was a protest against the attitude of city officials in discouraging union organization of municipal employees and refusing to bargain with such a union as the representative of its employees.

On the evening of May 15 the city manager of Rochester abolished the jobs of about 500 employees of the Division of Public Works, holding that the "tactics" used by certain workers would lead to exorbitant costs and would cripple certain important public, health, safety, and welfare services. Union leaders termed the action an attempt to forestall unionization of the Department of Public Works and an aftermath of attendance of about 200 workers at a meeting of a newly formed local of the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFL).

Local groups of the CIO joined with AFL unions in a joint rally and in circulating petitions for reinstatement of the discharged workers, claiming they were upholding their "basic right to organize and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing" as guaranteed in the New York State constitution. The Central Trades and Labor Council (AFL) and Rochester CIO Industrial Union Council named a six-man strategy committee to assist the discharged workers. When workers engaged in ash and garbage collection stopped work, the city countered by dismissing the collectors. On May 21, pickets were arrested and charged with disorderly conduct. Union officials then indicated that they would ask for a sympathetic strike of all organized workers in Rochester.

At this point, the city manager restored the positions recently abolished and claimed that about 200 men had returned to work. It was stated that the city government was prepared to accept returning workers, but that it would pursue its original policy of not dealing with the union. On May 26, the union strategy committee announced that plans had been completed for a general strike which was subsequently set for 10 p. m., May 27. Mass picketing of all public works began May 28. The "demonstration" included work stoppages of bus drivers, of the CIO Amalgamated Clothing Workers, and of other union groups employed in factories, hotels, theaters, newspapers, and trucking industries. The stoppage ended early on May 29 when the city administration agreed to permit organization of municipal employees, and to reinstate all discharged workers "without prejudice." Charges against those arrested were to be dismissed.

Work Stoppages in May 1946

FEWER new stoppages occurred in May 1946 than in either March or April. Total idleness for the month declined to 11½ million man-days, compared with 15½ million man-days in April. Over one-half of the time lost during the month was due to the continuation, until May 29, of the bituminous-coal stoppage which began April 2. The largest dispute beginning in May was the 2-day cessation of railroad operations arising out of the controversy between the Nation's rail carriers and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers and the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen.

The 360 new stoppages arising in May, together with an estimated 355 which continued from April, made a total of 715 in progress at one time or another during the month, in which an estimated 1,165,000 workers were involved. In April, the 845 stoppages in effect involved 925,000 workers.

In the first 5 months of 1946, 1,795 new work stoppages were recorded. This figure exceeded the number beginning in the corresponding period in 1945, but was less than the 2,098 occurring in the first 5 months of 1944. The number of workers involved (2,795,000) was more than twice that of the similar periods of 1945 and 1944, and over five times the average for 1935–39. Idleness during January–May of this year (81,700,000 man-days) was more than twice that for the entire year of 1945 (38,025,000).

Work Stoppages in May 1946, With Comparable Data for Preceding Periods

Period	Work stoppages beginning in the period		Man-days idle during period (all stoppages)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
May 1946 [1]	360	560,000	11,500,000	1.81
April 1946 [1]	465	575,000	15,500,000	2.49
May 1945	433	332,700	2,219,000	.29
January–May—				
1946 [1]	1,795	2,795,000	81,700,000	2.74
1945	1,759	993,000	5,053,000	.14
1944	2,098	879,000	3,666,000	.09
1935–39 average	1,244	537,000	7,520,000	

[1] Preliminary estimates.

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, May 1946

There were 1,671 assignments made to labor disputes, including arbitration and technical services during May as compared with 1,814 assignments in April and 2,243 in May a year ago. This represents an 8-percent decrease in case assignments over April and a decrease of 26 percent from May 1945.

During the month of May 1946, the U. S. Conciliation Service disposed of 1,942 situations in comparison with 2,270 during the same month of 1945. Of the 1,942 situations disposed of, 17 percent were strikes and lock-outs; 44 percent were threatened strikes; 27 percent

were controversies; 4 percent were arbitration cases; 6 percent were investigations, elections, and special services.

According to May records, 323 strikes and 1 lock-out, 861 threatened strikes, and 548 controversies in which the employer, employees, and other interested parties asked for the assignment of a Commissioner of Conciliation to assist in the adjustment of disputes, were settled by conciliation. The remaining 209 situations include 80 arbitrations, 9 technical services, 28 investigations, and 92 requests for information, consultations, and special services.

Cases Closed by the U. S. Conciliation Service in May 1946, by Type of Situation and Type of Disposition

Method of handling	Total	Strikes and lock-outs	Threatened strikes	Controversies	Other situations
All methods	1,942	324	861	548	209
Settled by conciliation	1,733	324	861	548	----
Decisions rendered in arbitration	80	----	----	----	80
Technical services	9	----	----	----	9
Investigations, special services	120	----	----	----	120

Women in Industry

Postwar Decrease in Railroad Employment of Women[1]

FROM January 1943, when all reporting divisions of class I steam railroads employed 63,187 women, to April 1945, when the number of women workers was 115,876, there was an increase in such employment of 83 percent. The next 9 months, however, during which both the European and the Pacific phases of World War II came to an end, saw a decrease of 15 percent. Notwithstanding this decline, the number employed in January 1946 stood at 98,184, which was 55 percent above the number employed in January 1943. The ratio of women to all workers in reporting divisions in which women were included increased by 53 percent from January 1943 to April 1945, but fell by 14 percent in the succeeding 9 months. The decrease during the 9-month period in the total number of workers was 2 percent.

This lessening in the employment of women in the early postwar period was most marked in the maintenance of way and structures group, and the transportation (train and engine) group, in each of which the decrease was about 58 percent of the April 1945 employment. (In these groups, however, the ratios of women workers to total workers were very small.) In maintenance of equipment and stores and in transportation (other than train, engine, and yard), the decreases were 28 and 15 percent respectively; and even in the professional, clerical, and general group, in which employment of women is normally largest, the number in employment fell by 11 percent during the 9 months.

The following table shows total employment and employment of women, in all reporting divisions, by group, for January 1943,[2] April 1945 (the last month before the end of the first phase of World War II), and January 1946. Data for earlier periods are not available.

[1] U. S. Interstate Commerce Commission. Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics. Number of Females Employed by Class I Steam Railways. Fifth, tenth, and thirteenth reports, for months of January 944, April 1945, and January 1946, Washington (mimeographed).

[2] January 1943 figures were included in the fifth report of the ICC Bureau of Transport Economics and Statistics, issued for January 1944.

Women Employed and Total Employment, Two Wartime Periods and January 1946, on Class I Steam Railroads

[Excluding switching and terminal companies]

Group	Year and month	All workers	Women workers	
			Number	Percent of all workers
Grand total, all reporting divisions	1946, January	1,393,477	98,184	7.05
	1945, April	1,420,511	115,876	8.16
	1943, January	1,319,480	63,187	4.79
Total, all reporting divisions in which women workers were included	1946, January	1,102,886	98,184	8.90
	1945, April	1,122,464	115,876	10.32
	1943, January	935,017	63,187	6.76
Executives, officials, and staff assistants	1946, January	15,133	19	.13
	1945, April	14,884	19	.13
	1943, January	13,593	18	.13
Professional, clerical, and general	1946, January	227,421	71,171	31.29
	1945, April	230,716	80,026	34.69
	1943, January	210,196	48,138	22.90
Maintenance of way and structures	1946, January	225,254	733	.33
	1945, April	246,497	1,765	.72
	1943, January	211,955	745	.35
Maintenance of equipment and stores	1946, January	375,473	14,674	3.91
	1945, April	372,776	20,344	5.46
	1943, January	341,681	9,439	2.76
Transportation:				
Other than train, engine, and yard	1946, January	168,011	11,441	6.81
	1945, April	162,779	13,388	8.22
	1943, January	147,924	4,843	3.27
Yardmasters, switch tenders, and hostlers	1946, January	3,092	32	1.03
	1945, April	3,124	57	1.82
	1943, January	----------	----------	----------
Train and engine	1946, January	88,502	114	.13
	1945, April	91,688	277	.30
	1943, January	9,668	4	.04

Veterans

Veterans' Emergency Housing Act, 1946[1]

ASSISTANCE has been provided for private builders in the construction of low- and moderate-cost dwellings, under the terms of the Veterans' Emergency Housing Act, which was approved on May 22, 1946. Veterans are to have preference in buying or renting houses; subsidies are authorized to encourage the production of scarce materials; and the maximum amount of home loans that the Government may insure is increased. Through this emergency measure, the Federal Government will aid in the 2-year program of 2.7 million housing units which the National Housing Expediter recommended last February.

Veterans' Preference in Housing

Veterans' preference in rent or sale of the dwellings constructed is afforded under two main provisions. In issuing any regulation or order allocating or establishing priorities for the delivery of materials or facilities, the Expediter must give special consideration to satisfying the housing requirements of veterans of World War II and their families. During the first 60 days after completion (formerly 30 days), housing that is built with such priorities assistance may be sold only to veterans; to rental housing, the veterans have exclusive rights for occupancy, during the first 30 days after completion. As to dwelling units for which mortgages are insured under the National Housing Act, the Administrator is to prescribe procedures that he believes are necessary in order to secure preference for occupancy by the veterans and their families and by hardship cases as defined by him.

Subsidy of Building Materials Production

Subsidy payments are authorized if, after considering all available means, the Housing Expediter finds it necessary in order to increase the supply of materials for the veterans' emergency housing program and for other construction, maintenance, and repair that is essential to the national well-being. Such payments may not exceed 400 million dollars. The subsidy may "be used only temporarily and only with relation to additional units of production beyond that otherwise attainable . . . , where such premium payments are necessary to stimulate such additional production with greater rapidity,

[1] United States Congress, Public Law 388 (79th Cong., 2d sess.); National Housing Agency, Press releases Nos. 408 and 416; and daily press.

economy, or certainty than other available methods." The average rate of subsidy payments may not exceed 25 percent of the value of the units of production to which they are applied. They must be applied at a uniform rate within an industry, whenever feasible. If subsidy is used to stimulate necessary additional production, emphasis is to be placed on the avoidance of either economic dislocations or adverse effects on existing business. Subsidized new type materials are to be tested for sound quality.

Insured Mortgages

By the terms of the law, 1 billion dollars was added to the authorized limit of home-mortgage loans that the Federal Housing Administration may insure. In making this provision, Congress restored title VI of the National Housing Act, whereby the FHA may insure mortgage loans up to 90 percent of the "necessary current cost" of the property involved, including the land. The President may increase the amount of insurable loans by another 1 billion dollars.

The amount of an individual loan which the FHA may insure under title VI was also increased, in recognition of the rise that has occurred in building costs. Formerly $5,400 was the maximum for an insured mortgage loan on a single family house; under the 1946 legislation, an $8,100 loan may be insured if it is found not feasible to construct dwellings in a particular area at a lower price without sacrificing sound standards.

Veterans Returning to Farm Work[1]

THE 650,000 World War II veterans who were working on farms in March 1946 totaled nearly half of the 1,244,000 farm workers[2] who were inducted into the armed services during the war. This estimated number of veterans employed on farms, which was made by the Bureau of the Census, is five times the number so engaged shortly after VE-day, according to a survey by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Returning veterans are taking over some of the jobs left by farmers and farm laborers who entered the services and also certain vacancies left by agricultural laborers who entered industrial employment.

[1] Information is from U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Veterans Returning to Farm Work, by Louis J. Ducoff and Margaret Jarman Hagood, May 1946 (mimeographed).

[2] Excluded are the relatively few farm workers who entered the Marine Corps and Coast Guard, and Navy inductions and enlistments from April 1, 1944, to January 1, 1945. This group probably does not exceed 100,000.

Family Allowances

Military Family Allowances in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, 1945 [1]

THE movement for civilian family allowances made considerable progress in various countries in the last half decade.[2] Among the outstanding developments were the passage of family-allowance acts in Canada and Great Britain. Paralleling this movement in the war period was the extension of military family-allowance systems by many foreign governments as well as by the United States.[3] These systems generally embody one or more of the following principles:

(1) Payment of benefits to wives and children on the sole condition that the member of the armed forces allot a part of his pay for the maintenance of these dependents, regardless of their needs or the prior earnings of the man who makes the allotment;

(2) Grant of an allowance to the wife of a man in the armed forces if she is without other income, which grant is related to the net income of the husband before mobilization;

(3) The continuation during military service of all or a part of the salary or wage which the member of the armed forces received before entering such service;

(4) A system of grants based on need, which in certain countries supplements a basic and more automatic family-allowance plan.

The systems of family allowances, supplementing pay allotments, were obviously required during the war because of discrepancies between civilian and military pay and the importance for reasons of morale of adequate and systematic methods of providing for servicemen's families and dependents. Quite generally the allowance systems were designed to allow for maximum differentiation based upon the varying numbers of dependents and special circumstances, rather than to simply provide for flat sums. It is not possible to evaluate differences in the liberality of the allowances as between the various countries. Within a given country, the allowance systems affected different social groups or areas in differing ways, depending for one thing on the relationship between total allowances and allotments to customary civilian income, and had significant social and economic effects.

Information is not now available in detail for all countries, either with respect to the nature of the allowances or the sums expended. The following table gives comparative data on the essential features of the wartime systems of family allowances and allotments in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain in 1945.

[1] Prepared by Mary T. Waggaman of the Bureau's Publications Staff.

[2] Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bulletin No. 803, Mid-War Developments in Civilian Family Allowances, Washington, 1944; and Bulletin 853, Family Allowances in Various Countries, 1944–45, Washington, 1946.

[3] United States Congress, Senate, Committee on Military Affairs. Family Allowances, Hearings on S. 2467, April 1942 (p. 22). Washington, 1942.

Essential Features of Military Family-Allowance Systems in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, 1945 [1]

Item	United States	Canada	Great Britain
Armed forces covered.	Enlisted males and females, first to seventh grades, both inclusive, and aviation cadets, in the U. S. Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard, including retired and reserve members in active service (with certain exceptions) during any war declared by Congress and 6 months thereafter—or during a period of enlistment or reenlistment contracted previous to July 1, 1946. (Commissioned officers receive higher subsistence and rental allowances when they have dependents, but such allowances do not vary with the number of dependents.)	Officers and lower ranks of Canadian Active Service Force. Allowances also applicable generally to Royal Canadian Navy, Royal Canadian Air Force, and Canadian Women's Army Corps.	Armed forces, including Army, Royal Navy, and Royal Air Force. Officers commissioned on or after January 1, 1942 (also officers commissioned before that date who elected to be paid the new rates), and men below commissioned rank. Data given are for the Army. Dependents' allowances, allotments of pay, and basic daily rates in other services are not completely comparable, but in general follow somewhat similar patterns.
Dependents eligible for family allowances.	*Class A*—Lawful wife; former wife, divorced; children under 18 years of age, including legitimate children, legally adopted children, stepchildren, and illegitimate children under specified circumstances; also individuals to whom the serviceman stands in loco parentis. (A servicewoman's husband and children—only if the Secretary of the Department employing her finds that such persons are dependent upon her for chief support.) *Class B–1*—The following persons, if the serviceman is their main support: parent, grandparent, stepparent or adopted parent of serviceman or his spouse, person or persons who under specified circumstances stood in loco parentis to serviceman; brothers and sisters, full and half blood, adopted, or stepbrothers and stepsisters. *Class B*—Same persons as listed in class B–1, if serviceman is their substantial support.	Wife or female relative who is charged with the care and management of the officer's or private's home; divorced wife if officer or private is under legal obligation to contribute to her maintenance. Children, to the number of 6, including foster and illegitimate children supported entirely by the officer or serviceman. Also the following persons, if supported entirely or in part by the officer or serviceman: Mother or foster mother; widowed father or foster father; brother or sister under specified conditions. Dependents' allowance "will not be paid . . . for dependents in excess of a total of 3" except as follows: It may be paid "for a wife and divorced wife and not more than 6 dependent children. In addition, dependents' allowance may also be paid for a mother or father . . . who may qualify under the terms of these regulations." Dependents' allowances on behalf of members of the Canadian Women's Army Corps may not be paid for spouse and children, but may be paid for other dependent relatives.	Wife, or full-time housekeeper employed by allocatee to take charge of his motherless home; and children, including legitimated or adopted children, or stepchildren. Dependents other than wives and children, also unmarried dependents living as wives.
Allotments from pay.	$22 per month for dependents in class A. $5 additional if dependents also include other classes. When the payment to a dependent is less than $22 the serviceman is charged only with the amount of such payment. Pay of men in Army grades eligible for family allowances ranged in 1945 from $50 to $138 per month.	*Commissioned officer.*—Amount left to his discretion. *Noncommissioned officer.*—15 days' pay of rank per month for wife and children and an additional 5 days' pay of rank when he has other dependents; 15 days' pay of rank per month for dependents when he has no wife or children. The amounts below shall be considered 15 days' pay of rank: Noncommissioned officers, $35 to $60; lower ranks, $20 to $23; and ratings (Navy), $20 to 55. Maximum monthly allotment, 20 days' pay of rank.	Amount of assignment to be paid by commissioned officers in Army left to their discretion, but must be equal to Government contribution to family allowance: Noncommissioned officers, 17s. 6d. to 24s. 6d.; lower ranks, 3s. 6d. to 10s. 6d. Daily basic rates of noncommissioned officers, 5s. 6d. to 17s. 0d.; of privates, 3s. 0d. to 7s. 0d.

See footnotes at end of table.

Essential Features of Military Family-Allowance Systems in the United States, Canada, and Great Britain, 1945 [1]—Continued

Item	United States	Canada	Great Britain
Amounts of allowances.	Per month (including Government contribution): *Class A:* Wife ..... $50 First child ..... 30 Each additional child ..... 20 Divorced wife ..... 42 *Class B-1:* 1 parent, no brother or sister ..... 50 2 parents, no brother or sister ..... 68 1 parent and 1 brother or sister ..... 68 2 parents 1 brother or sister ..... 79 Brother or sister but no parent ..... 42 Each additional brother or sister ..... 11 *Class B:* Only when no allowance is payable to Class B-1 dependents ..... 37 Any enlisted man of first, second or third grades who is provided with public quarters for his dependents for any of whom he is receiving family allowances has his monthly pay reduced by or charged with 90 cents per day.	Per month (excluding allotments of pay) such amounts as the Dependents' Allowance Board may decide, but not to exceed, for— *Wife of—* Major ..... $57.20 Captain ..... 52.20 Lieutenant or 2d lieutenant ..... 47.20 Warrant officer, class I ..... 42.20 All other ranks ..... 37.20 *Dependent children—* First ..... 13.92 Second ..... 12.00 Third ..... 10.00 Fourth ..... 8.00 Fifth ..... 8.00 Sixth ..... 8.00 *Other dependent relatives—* Officers above rank of major ..... 30.00 Major and all other ranks 25.00	Allowances, excluding allotments of pay: *Commissioned officers in army—* *Per day* Childless wives ..... 4s. 0d. Wife and child of— Major ..... 6s. 0d. Captain ..... 7s. 6d. Subaltern ..... 8s. 6d. Wife and 2 children of— Major ..... 8s. 0d. Captain ..... 9s. 6d. Subaltern ..... 10s. 6d. Each additional child ..... 2s. 0d. *Noncommissioned officers:* *Per week* Childless wives ..... 21s. 6d. to 28s. 0d. Wives with children ..... 24s. 0d. to 28s. 0d. Each child (no limit to number) ..... 12s. 6d. *Soldiers below the rank of sergeant:* Childless wives ..... 21s. 6d. Wives with children ..... 24s. 6d. to 31s. 6d. Each child (no limit to number) ..... 12s. 6d.
Other provisions	Allowance is payable to only 1 designated class B dependent, unless the Secretary of the administrative department directs that the specified amount be distributed to 2 or more dependents. To a former wife, divorced, the amount of family allowance shall not be more than the amount fixed by court order or decree to be paid to such former wife	Age limits: For sons, 16 years; for daughters, 17 years; for both sons and daughters, 19 years, if they are continuing their education in an institution approved by the Dependents' Allowance Board. No age limit for dependent son or daughter who is unable, owing to physical or mental infirmity, to earn a living. Age limit for a brother is 16, for a sister 18, unless such dependents are physically or mentally incapable of providing for their own support. These dependents must also have been bona fide members of the applicant's household previous to his appointment or enlistment, "if the applicant is their sole support."	Age limit for commissioned officers' children: 18 years; or over 18, if still receiving full time instruction at school or other educational establishment, or if physically or mentally incapable of supporting themselves. Age limit of children of noncommissioned officers and of lower ranks: School-leaving age, unless continuing their education or incapable of contributing to their own support.
Administration	War Department, Office of Dependency Benefits; Navy Department, Dependents Welfare Division; Marine Corps, Allotment Office, Family Allow-	Department of National Defense. Dependents' Allowance Board.	Payments of family allowances are made, in the Army, for officers, by Army Pay Office for Officers, for other ranks, by Regimental Pay-

Administration	War Department, Office of Dependency Benefits; Navy Department, Dependents Welfare Division; Marine Corps, Allotment Office, Family Allowance Section; Treasury Department, Coast Guard, Military Morale Division, Family Allowance Section.	Department of National Defense. Dependents' Allowance Board.	Payments of family allowances are made, in the Army, for officers, by Army Pay Office for Officers, for other ranks, by Regimental Paymaster; in Royal Navy, by Director of Navy Accounts; in Royal Marines, by Paymaster of division to which man belongs; in Royal Air Force, Air Ministry, for officers, by Director of Personal Services, for other ranks, by Director of Accounts. (From information published in 1943.)

[1] United States. Act approved June 23, 1942 (56 U. S. Stat. L. 381); act approved August 20, 1942 (56 U. S. Stat. L. 747); act approved October 26, 1943 (57 U. S. Stat. L. 577); act approved October 6, 1945 (59 U. S. Stat. L. 538); information telephoned from War Department, June 7, 1945; Monthly Labor Review, August 1942 (p. 226), January 1944 (p. 67).

Canada. Dependents' Allowance Board. Assigned Pay and Dependents Allowance Regulations, Extracts from Financial Regulations and Instructions for the Canadian Active Service Force (Canada) as amended to January 1, 1945 (Ottawa, 1945); typewritten additions covering amendments up to July 1, 1945; and telephoned information from Canadian Embassy, Washington, (June 3, 1946).

Great Britain. National Council of Social Service (Inc.), Citizens Advice Notes, London, 1943 (pp. [18] 1–2). British Information Service, Rates of Pay in the British Armed Forces (IDH 571, revised, replacing IDH 238), Washington, May 11, 1945 (processed); Postwar Code of Pay, Allowances and Service Pensions and Gratuities for Members of the Forces below Officer Rank, London, 1945 (Cmd. 6715).

Labor Laws and Decisions

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor [1]

Reemployment Rights of Veterans

"SUPERSENIORITY" doctrine rejected by U. S. Supreme Court.—One of the most important questions arising under the reemployment provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act has been answered in the decision of the United States Supreme Court in *Fishgold* v. *Sullivan Drydock & Repair Corp.*[2] The Court held that the guaranty contained in the act, against "discharge . . . without cause within 1 year after" a veteran's restoration to his peacetime job, does not protect the veteran against "lay-off" in accordance with the seniority system established by the union agreement in effect at the time of his induction. The Court stated that, in enacting the law, Congress did not intend to eliminate the seniority system. Protection was intended to be afforded the veteran "within the framework of the seniority system plus a guaranty against demotion or termination of the employment relationship without cause for a year."

Independent contractor not entitled to reemployment.—Under the Selective Training and Service Act a veteran who left a position "in the employ of any employer" is guaranteed restoration to his former status. The Federal District Court of Illinois, in a case involving a petition by a veteran for reemployment as a salesman,[3] has indicated that common-law tests will be applied in determining whether the veteran was an "employee" within the meaning of the act, or an "independent contractor" and therefore outside the sphere of its protection. Thus, in denying the veteran's petition, the court pointed out that he had been employed on a commission basis, had maintained his own office and exercised his own discretion as to the manner of performance of his work, had conceived and financed some sales promotional activities, and had exercised the privilege of purchasing the company's products at a discount for resale to customers of his own choosing.

National Labor Relations Act

Requirement that claim of representation be followed by timely petition.—In a proceeding involving the General Electric X-Ray Corp.,[4] the National Labor Relations Board promulgated a new rule concern-

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of the significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached, based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[2] —— U. S. ——, May 27, 1946. For discussion of the district court decision in this case, see Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 993).

[3] *Frank* v. *Tru-Vue, Inc.*, U. S. D. C. of Illinois, S. D., Apr. 3, 1943.

[4] —— N. L. R. B. ——, April 30, 1946.

ing the effect of a mere claim of representation upon an agreement between the employer and the certified employee bargaining agent, executed subsequent to such claim and after the expiration of the 1-year immunity period. Under the new ruling, "where a petition is filed more than 10 days after the assertion of a bare claim of representation, and no extenuating circumstances appear, an agreement, otherwise valid, which is executed in the interval should be held to constitute a bar." Before this decision, a mere claim of majority was sufficient to prevent a subsequent agreement operating as a bar, regardless of the interval elapsing before the petition for a determination of representatives was filed. The requirement that a formal petition be filed within 10 days of the claim will, it is expected, greatly limit the use of the claim as a tactical device to obstruct the bargaining efforts of the recognized union in anticipation of a "raid" on its membership. The Board's opinion points out that when a formal petition is filed, the claim is submitted to the preliminary scrutiny of the regional office, and the risk of rejection will, it is believed, discourage baseless claims.

Effect of "opening up" contract upon "10 day" rule.—In a case[5] decided shortly after the *General Electric X-Ray Corp.* case, the rival union which claimed a majority failed to file its petition until more than 10 days after the assertion of its claim, and an agreement was executed in the interim between the employer and a certified union. However, while the petition was pending, the parties entered into renewed negotiations on matters covered by the agreement. The Board held that its recently announced 10-day rule does not alter the effect of "opening up" negotiations as precluding operation of the agreement as a bar, and that the petition would therefore be allowed despite its tardy filing. However, the Board reaffirmed the qualification that the agreement would not be considered "opened up" if the issue later negotiated arose out of "new and unforeseen" circumstances or involved "a disagreement with respect to the meaning of any provision of the agreement."

Effect of reconversion on bargaining rights of certified union.—The extent to which changes wrought by industrial reconversion will affect the presumptive 1-year immunity of a certified union is well illustrated by the Board's two-to-one decision in the *Electric Sprayit Co.* case.[6] In July 1945, about a month after the election won by a CIO union by a vote of 258 to 227, the company discharged 100 workers and 75 percent of the remaining employees petitioned the company for recognition of an AFL union. Two days later the company filed a petition for a new election and refused to bargain with the successful union. The certification was not issued until 4 days after the company's petition was filed. Apart from the discharge of the 100 employees, no material change had occurred in the company's operations or personnel at the time its petition was filed. However, on the date of the hearing before the National Labor Relations Board, the company's working force had been reduced to its prewar level of 169, and substantial progress had been made in reconverting from wartime precision production to manufacture of civilian spraying equipment and lighting fixtures. A majority of

[5] *In re Olin Industries, Inc.*, —— N. L. R. B. ——, Apr. 30, 1946.
[6] ——N. L. R. B.——, April 25, 1946.

the Board held that these circumstances, although arising after the petition was filed, together with the fact that the AFL union had been the employees' bargaining agent before the war, warranted the holding of a new election. In the opinion of the Board the "very industrial peace and stability," which the "1-year rule" was designed to promote, could only be assured "by affording the company's present employees an opportunity to express a current choice." The dissenting Board member stated that the petition was "obviously premature," and that it had "the net effect . . . of [obstructing] the bargaining program of the majority representatives before reconversion and . . . [eliminating] that representative after reconversion." In the view of the majority, however, the workers' interests in having continuous bargaining representation was outweighed, under the facts of the case, by the desirability of avoiding the imposition by wartime workers of an unwanted bargaining agent.

Effect of reconversion on agreement executed by employer and certified union.—As a corollary to the principle enunciated in the *Electric Sprayit Co.* case, the Board has held that an unexpired agreement will not bar a petition for a new election when such action is made desirable by the exigencies of reconversion.[7] In this case the employer had ceased war production, and had not yet reconverted when a new 1-year agreement was reached covering certain prewar classifications which had not been re-created. Only 45 percent of the total anticipated peacetime personnel was then in the company's employ. The Board was of the opinion that the employees in the unit described in the agreement were "not representative of the skills embraced by its terms," and accordingly ordered a new election.

Agreement as bar where no unusual circumstances exist.—In the absence of reconversion factors or other unusual circumstances, an agreement executed less than 1 year after certification will bar a new election for the duration of the term of the agreement. This basic principle was recently reaffirmed in a decision of the Board[8] dispelling doubts which had been cast by several apparently inconsistent prior decisions. The Board pointed to the fact that a refusal on the part of the employer to bargain would have been a violation of section 8 (5) of the National Labor Relations Act. It would be futile, the board declared, to compel the employer to bargain "while withholding power from the parties to make a resulting agreement effective as against any rival claim."

Fair Labor Standards Act

Attempted settlement of employees' right to liquidated damages.—In an earlier decision[9] the United States Supreme Court held that a mere waiver by employees of their right to overtime compensation and liquidated damages was void as contrary to the policy of the Fair Labor Standards Act and that it was no bar to full enforcement by the employees of their rights under the act. Extending this doctrine in *D. A. Schulte, Inc.* v. *Gangi*[10] the Supreme Court held that a com-

[7] *American Radiator and Standard Sanitary Corp.*, —— N. L. R. B. ——, May 3, 1946.
[8] *In re Con P. Curran Printing Co.*——N. L. R. B. ——, May 15, 1946.
[9] *Brooklyn Savings Bank* v. *O'Neil*, 324 U. S. 697, discussed in Monthly Labor Review, November 1945 (p. 995).
[10] *D. A. Schulte, Inc.* v. *Gangi*, —— U. S. ——, Apr. 29, 1946.

promise settlement of the employees' claims after a bona fide dispute as to coverage of the employees under the act, whereby the employees receive the overtime compensation in full but abandon their right to liquidated damages, will likewise be stricken down as violative of the act. Congress intended the liquidated damages as compensation to "the injured employee for the retention of his pay" and as "an aid to the enforcement" of the act, both of which purposes would be defeated if bona fide adjustments of the kind involved were recognized as valid. While realizing that its conclusion puts the employer and his employees to an "all or nothing gamble" in a lawsuit, the Court declared that a contrary result would "thwart the public policy of minimum wages, promptly paid, embodied in the Wage-Hour Act."

The decision leaves open the question of the validity of compromises in other situations which may arise, "such as a dispute over the number of hours worked or the regular rate of employment."

Railroad "trainees" not employees.—The three Circuit Courts of Appeals to whom the question was presented have agreed that "trainees" of railroad companies are not "employees" under the Fair Labor Standards Act, and, therefore, not entitled to its benefits.[11] In the typical situation, "trainees" are placed under the supervision of regular employees of the railroad to observe and participate in the work; if, after a minimum period, the trainees prove their fitness for the job, they are eligible for regular employment. Trainees are not obligated to accept a permanent position at the end of the training period; on the other hand, the training, is a necessary prerequisite. The decisions emphasize that the trainee's services are of little or no immediate benefit to the railroad and that, even if the training period is successfully completed, the trainee is not obliged to accept permanent employment. Dissenting opinions in two of the cases [12] adopt the view that the trainees are "suffered or permitted" to work by the railroads and are, therefore, within the literal statutory definition of employment, regardless of whether their services are of immediate value to their employer. It was also pointed out that such training does result in an indirect and ultimate benefit to the railroads in that a pool is supplied from which competent employees may be drawn when needed.

Time spent waiting to punch time clock as "hours worked." [13]—Although recognizing that a time-clock recording system promotes efficient operation of the employer's business and in large plants may be an actual necessity, a Federal District Court in Pennsylvania, adopting the Administrator's view,[14] held that time necessarily spent by employees waiting in line to punch the clock will not be considered hours worked under the Fair Labor Standards Act, unless they are required to wait a "considerable" period of time.[15] The true test in this situation, the court said, is whether the employee "was unreasonably deprived of time which he should have had free." In the present case, the interval involved was 3 minutes and the court held that this is not unreasonable. Pointing to the fact that employees

[11] *Walling* v. *Jacksonville Terminal Co.*, (C. C. A. 5) 148 Fed. 2d 768. *Walling* v. *Portland Terminal Co.*, C. C. A. 1, Apr. 29, 1946. *Walling* v. —. *C. N St. L. Ry.*, C. C. A. 6, June 1, 1946.

[12] *Walling* v. *Portland Terminal Co., and Walling* v. *N. C. & St. L. Ry., supra.*

[13] Related questions are involved in *Anderson* v. *Mt. Clemens Pottery Co.*, decided by the United States Supreme Court on June 10, 1946, too late to be reported in this issue.

[14] See Interpretative Bulletin No. 13 of the Wage and Hour Division.

[15] *Cameron* v. *Bendix Aviation Corp.*, U. S. D. C. of Pa., E. D., Apr. 9, 1946.

in many instances were not penalized for punching in late in the morning or after lunch, the court declared that a stricter view than the one it adopted would eliminate "all reasonable human give-and-take adjustments on both sides."

Attendance bonus as part of regular rate of pay.—In the first judicial decision on this question, the Federal District Court in Georgia held that a lump-sum attendance bonus paid for working a full week is part of the employee's straight-time compensation and must be included in computing his regular rate of pay under the Fair Labor Standards Act.[16] In answer to the employer's contention that the bonus consituted overtime compensation, the court pointed out that it was paid in weeks in which the working schedule was less than 40 hours as well as in overtime weeks. Moreover, even in overtime weeks, the court said, the bonus is not paid specifically for working overtime hours, but rather for completion of the entire work schedule, including the first 40 hours. The court's decision affirms the view long held by the Administrator.

Installation of burglar alarm systems.—Employees installing and servicing burglar alarm systems in local establishments producing goods for commerce are themselves engaged in an occupation "necessary to" such production and are within the coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act, according to a decision of the Federal District Court in Los Anngeles.[17] Moreover, such employees are not exempt as engaged in a "service establishment" since under recent decisions of the United States Supreme Court, the "service" contemplated by the exemption must be "retail" in character, and burglar alarms are a "business" and not a "personal" necessity.

Decisions of State Courts

Constitutionality of California "Hot Cargo" Act.—The decisions of two county courts in California are in conflict as to the constitutionality of the State "Hot Cargo "Act, which declares sympathetic strikes and secondary boycotts unlawful, and prohibits conduct in furtherance thereof, including picketing and inducement to strike. The Superior Court for San Diego County[18] declared the act unconstitutional as violative of the State and Federal constitutional guaranties of freedom of speech, insofar as it seeks to prevent employees or unions "from using concerted action, by lawful and peaceful means, such as strike, picketing or boycott, primary or secondary, to enforce an objective that is reasonably related to the labor dispute" in progress. Opposing this view, the Superior Court of Los Angeles County[19] upheld the validity of the statute upon the groundt hat the right to engage in a sympathetic strike or secondary boycott "stemmed from the common law" and is not protected by the Constitution. Consequently, the court said, the legislature may outlaw such activities "together with their incidents [of which] the chief one is the picket line."

Independent laundry trade drivers as "workingmen" under New York Anti-Monopoly Act.—A 1935 amendment to the New York Anti-

[16] *Walling* v. *Fibb Mfg. Co.*, U. S. D. C. of Ga., M. D. May. 15, 1946.
[17] *Walling* v. *Thompson*, U. S. D. C., of California, S. D. May 27, 1946.
[18] *Union Ice Co.* v. *Sales Drivers Union*, Sup. Ct., San Diego County, Calif., May 13, 1946.
[19] *Famser* v. *Storage Furniture Drivers, etc.*, Sup. Ct., Los Angeles County, Calif., April 30, 1946.

Monopoly Act (art. 22, sec. 340, Gen. Bus. Law) provided that "nothing herein contained shall be deemed to prohibit or restrict the right of workingmen to combine in unions * * * not organized for the purpose of profit." In affirming the dismissal of an indictment under this statute, the New York Court of Appeals in *People* v. *Gassman* (April 18, 1946) held that laundry truck drivers, whose status under the common law would be that of independent contractors, are nevertheless "workingmen" within the foregoing amendment, and a closed-shop agreement entered into between them and the laundry owners is not in violation of the act. The court declared, however, that it would adopt an empirical approach in fixing the point at which a person "becomes so much an enterpriser that he can no longer enjoy the statutory privileges of a 'workingman'," and would, accordingly, decide each case on its facts.

Prices and Cost of Living

Relation of Price And Wage Control

THE adverse effect of the relaxation of price control on the balance between prices and wages was stressed in a statement made by the Chairman of the National Wage Stabilization Board on June 17, 1946.[1] To consider price relief alone is to deal with "only half of a two-sided problem," the chairman stated in outlining the general situation, as follows.

It is vitally important in view of recent legislative developments that all of the implications of the proposed changes in the present price-control program be made immediately and unmistakably clear. One of them has thus far been virtually ignored. It is the effect of those proposed pricing changes upon wage levels and upon present and prospective wage disputes.

It is the theory behind the proposed price amendments, apparently, that free prices will get full production, and that full production will mean low prices. That theory disregards one basic fact. That fact is that American labor does not believe the theory, and that it will very probably reject an experiment which nearly destroyed it, once in 1921 and again in 1930.

We have just experienced a 6-month period of constant interruptions of basic production resulting from wage disputes between big American industry and big American labor. Those disputes were not labor's "fault," and they were not industry's "fault." They were the inevitable consequence of the transition from a war period, characterized by patriotic sacrifice of special interests, to a period in which those self-interests have on "both sides" re-emerged.

Those reconversion wage disputes have now, however, been substantially concluded. Some 40,000 wage settlements have been made within the past 4 months, and for the first time since the war there is the prospect of general peace on the industrial front.

Those disputes have been settled under the rules and within the principles established by the wage-price order issued by President Truman in February. Labor has received the wage increases which, under those rules, were considered a legitimate basis for the price increases which the rules recognized. Industry has received the price increases warranted by those wage adjustments. Neither side got what it wanted, and the consumer paid too big a bill, but a certain balance was achieved. The proposal now is to change one section of those rules. Industry is to be given discretion, within a much wider area, as to the prices it will charge—to a public made up largely of "labor"—for its products. The cost of living which was anticipated when the February rules were set, and when the 40,000 wage settlements were made, is now going to go up.

There is no sufficient basis for labor's charge that this is a Machiavellian tactic, whereby it was lured into wage contracts of a year's duration, only to have prices let loose the minute the major wage disputes were settled. Most of those wage settlements can and will be reopened within a few months. Many of the contracts have 60-day reopening clauses in their terms, and many others assumed, as a practical matter, comparative cost-of-living stability and the continuation of the present rules.

Nor is there sufficient basis for any imputation of dishonest motives. The legislative purpose is clear. It is to start moving swollen inventories by changing price tags, and to place a further incentive on production by offering bigger prices for what is produced. This proposed solution is that where present controls have

[1] National Wage Stabilization Board, Division of Public Information, Release of June 17, 1946 (NWSB-60).

resulted in a strike against production and commerce, and the self-interests involved are strong enough, those interests must be satisfied. The approach is neither dishonest nor indirect, it is discouragingly candid.

It is important only that it be recognized that Congress has thus far considered only half the problem and recognized only half of the special interests involved. There have been weeks of debate and dozens of amendments relating to the relaxation of price controls. Little has yet been said, or apparently even thought, about the present controls over wages.

Labor has accepted, to date, rules and conditions which have meant that take-home pay is less now than it was 1 year ago. It has joined with industry and public representatives on the National Wage Stabilization Board in passing upon every substantial wage increase to see that it will not break the price line. It has acquiesced, although sometimes with a dissenting vote, when proposed wage increases were scaled down. It has joined in instituting, since the first of the year, more than 5,000 enforcement cases against contractors who have pirated labor in the construction industry and charged the black-market wage bill to returned veterans and other desperately homeless people.

This position may be expected to change drastically upon the enactment of jack-in-the-box price amendments. Labor cannot be expected to pay decontrolled prices with controlled wages. It can hardly be expected to support an effective wage-control program. Labor's opposition to black-market wages will end with the legalization of black-market prices.

Twice before within the past 25 years American labor has seen wage increases lag further and further behind price increases, until the economic cord finally snapped—around labor's neck. It will not do that again. Labor may be expected to demand its wage increases this time in anticipation of what the increases in the cost of living are going to be. These demands will not be for 10 or 15 or 20 cents an hour—but for three or five times that amount. The wage disputes and the strikes and stoppages of the next 6 months again will slow our output—this time to a virtual halt.

This is not a plea for labor. Labor will state its own position. As a public member of the Wage Stabilization Board, I am advising those whom I represent that our interests are threatened today by the proposed destruction of a balance of wages and price controls upon which those interests depend. I am reporting that I do not think that wages can be any longer controlled if the price changes proposed in Congress are adopted. It is my best judgment that if those price changes are made—to stimulate production—that same production will be crippled by wage demands which cannot in good conscience be opposed. I am saying that Congress has thus far considered only half of a two-sided problem; that labor will repair temporarily any damages to it; but that all of us are going to be irreparably hurt. I am urging that this problem be thought all the way through and that price controls be not abandoned, in whole or in part, until an answer on the wage side has been found.

Index of Consumers' Prices in Large Cities, May 1946 [1]

PRICES of living essentials for moderate-income families in large cities continued to rise during the month ending May 15, 1946. Higher prices for food, clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services contributed to the 0.5-percent increase, which brought the May 15 consumers' price index to 131.5 percent of the

[1] The "consumers' price index for moderate-income families in large cities," formerly known as the "cost of living index," measures average changes in retail prices of selected goods, rents and services, weighted by quantities bought by families of wage earners and moderate-income workers in large cities in 1934–36. The items priced for the index constituted about 70 percent of the expenditures of city families whose incomes averaged $1,524 in 1934–36.

The index only partially shows the wartime effects of changes in quality, availability of consumer goods, etc. The President's Committee on the Cost of Living has estimated that such factors, together with certain others not fully measured by the index, would add a maximum of 3 to 4 points to the index for large cities between January 1941 and September 1944. If small cities were included in the national average, another ½ point would be added. If account is also taken of continued deterioration of quality and disappearance of low-priced merchandise between September 1944 and September 1945, the over-all adjustment for the period January 1941 to September 1945 would total approximately 5 points. As merchandise of pre-

1935–39 average. Consumers' prices were one-third higher in May than at the outset of the Second World War in 1939; from the beginning of the First World War to the high point of 1920 retail prices more than doubled.

After the end of the war in Japan in August 1945, consumers' prices increased 1.7 percent. Clothing and housefurnishings costs advanced 6.1 and 4.4 percent, respectively, and food prices rose 1.2 percent. Nearly all of this rise occurred since mid-February 1946.

Retail prices of goods and services used by city families were 5.1 percent above the level of May 1943 when the President's "hold-the-line" order become effective. Food prices in May 1946 were at about the same level as in May 1943; clothing and housefurnishings costs, however, are almost 22 percent higher. Effects of the recently announced higher ceiling prices for a number of dairy, bakery, and cereal products will not be reflected in the index until June and July.

Meats, butter, oleomargarine, shortening, bread, and some canned foods were scarce in most large cities in the United States in May. These scarcities made it impossible to obtain the usual number of food price quotations for the consumers' price index. With these scarcities there have been more reports of increased sales through black markets which are not reflected in price reports to the Bureau.

The shortages of meat were so acute that in a few cities none of the independent stores from which the Bureau regularly collects prices had any of the standard list of meat products during the pricing period. Under these conditions the usual method of computing average prices could not be used. In order that indexes for food prices as a whole and for all commodities in combination might be published, it was assumed that meat prices were unchanged between April and May in five cities. Provision has been made to reflect changes in meat prices in these cities between April and June if meat is available then.

For the month of May this lack of meat prices has not affected the total index seriously and the national average increase of 0.5 percent for meat prices is a significant figure. Shortages of other products were not sufficiently acute to produce the same kind of pricing problem that was experienced in meats. Thus, the Bureau is reasonably confident in reporting that food prices as a whole advanced about 0.6 percent over April, though a more complete coverage of stores would probably have given a slightly higher figure for meat and, hence, for all foods.

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war quality and specifications comes back into the markets and the Bureau is able regularly to price it again, this adjustment factor will gradually decrease and finally disappear.

[1] The indexes in the accompanying tables are based on time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities. They do not indicate whether it costs more to live in one city than in another. The data relate to the 15th of each month, except those for January 1941, in tables 1 and 2. For that month they were estimated for January 1 (the date used in the "Little Steel" decision of the National War Labor Board), by assuming an even rate of change from December 15, 1940, to the next pricing date. The President's "hold-the-line" order was issued April 8, 1943. The peak of the rise which led to that order was reached in May, which is, therefore, used for this comparison.

Food prices are collected monthly in 56 cities during the first 4 days of the week which includes the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month. Aggregate costs of foods in each city, weighted to represent food purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. In March 1943, the number of cities included in the food index was increased from 51 to 56, and the number of foods from 54 to 61. Prices of clothing, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous goods and services are obtained in 34 large cities in March, June, September, and December. In intervening months, prices are collected in 21 of the 34 cities for a shorter list of goods and services. Rents are surveyed semiannually in most of the 34 cities (in March and September, or in June and December). In computing the all-items indexes for individual cities and the rent index for the average of large cities because of the general stability of average rents at present, the indexes are held constant in cities not surveyed during the current quarter. Prices for fuel, electricity, and ice are collected monthly in 34 large cities.

Fresh fish prices dropped 1.6 percent with seasonally larger supplies of lower priced varieties reaching most markets. There were further increases in the cost of bread in May, when additional cities authorized weight reductions in line with the Nation's program to conserve grains. Rye-bread prices advanced 16 percent as new ceilings were established. Fresh fruit and vegetable prices declined 0.1 percent as lower prices for green beans, cabbage, lettuce, onions and spinach offset higher prices for apples, oranges, carrots, potatoes, and sweetpotatoes.

Clothing prices rose 0.7 percent between April and May, mainly because of higher prices which were reported for apparel produced under recent orders to encourage production. Prices of housefurnishings increased 0.7 percent between April 15 and May 15, as higher prices allowed to manufacturers for wool rugs and mattresses were passed on to consumers.

Gas and electricity costs continued to decrease to a level 7 percent below the average in August 1939. Rate reductions in April and early May lowered the average cost of electricity to consumers in St. Louis, while gas costs declined 7 percent in Chicago, as lower rates became effective on May 1. The usual seasonal decrease in New York City gas rates was reflected in May bills.

Rents were not surveyed in May.

TABLE 1.—*Index of Consumers' Prices For Moderate-Income Families and Percent of Change, May 1946, Compared with Earlier Dates*

Group	May 1946	April 1946	May 1945	August 1945	May 1943	January 1941	August 1939
	This month	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Hold-the-line order	"Little Steel" decision	Month before war in Europe
	Indexes (1935-39=100)						
All items	131.5	130.9	128.1	129.3	125.1	100.8	98.6
Food	142.6	141.7	138.8	140.9	143.0	97.6	93.5
Clothing	155.4	154.3	144.6	146.4	127.9	101.2	100.3
Rent					108.0	105.0	104.3
Fuel, electricity, and ice	110.3	110.4	110.0	111.4	107.6	100.8	97.5
Gas and electricity	92.2	92.6	95.2	95.2	96.1	97.5	99.0
Other fuels and ice	127.8	127.7	124.4	127.2	118.7	104.0	96.3
Housefurnishings	152.4	151.3	145.4	146.0	125.1	100.2	100.6
Miscellaneous	126.3	126.0	123.9	124.5	115.3	101.8	100.4
	Percent of change to May 1946						
All items		+0.5	+2.7	+1.7	+5.1	+30.5	+33.4
Food		+.6	+2.7	+1.2	−.3	+46.1	+52.5
Clothing		+.7	+7.5	+6.1	+21.5	+53.6	+54.9
Rent [1]					+.4	+3.2	+3.9
Fuel, electricity, and ice		−.1	+.3	−1.0	+2.5	+9.4	+13.1
Gas and electricity		−.4	−3.2	−3.2	−4.1	−5.4	−6.9
Other fuels and ice		+.1	+2.7	+.5	+7.7	+22.9	+32.7
Housefurnishings		+.7	+4.8	+4.4	+21.8	+52.1	+51.5
Miscellaneous		+.2	+1.9	+1.4	+9.5	+24.1	+25.8

[1] Percent change to March 1946.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index from Specified Dates to May 1946, by Cities*

City	April 1946	May 1945	August 1945	May 1943	January 1941	August 1939
	Last month	Year ago	VJ-day	Hold-the-line order	"Little Steel" decision	Month before war in Europe
Average	+0.5	+2.7	+1.7	+5.1	+30.5	+33.4
Baltimore, Md	+.2	+2.0	+.8	+4.2	+32.7	+35.4
Birmingham, Ala	+.5	+2.1	+.2	+6.7	+32.1	+36.2
Boston, Mass	0	+2.0	+.6	+3.4	+27.5	+30.2
Buffalo, N. Y	+.2	+2.9	+1.6	+2.1	+29.0	+33.5
Chicago, Ill	+.2	+1.4	+1.4	+4.2	+28.2	+31.4
Cincinnati, Ohio	+.6	+2.0	+1.0	+5.5	+31.1	+34.2
Cleveland, Ohio	+.8	+1.4	+1.1	+4.3	+30.9	+33.5
Denver, Colo	+.5	+1.2	+1.7	+4.4	+29.9	+31.7
Detroit, Mich	+.5	+3.9	+2.2	+5.3	+32.8	+36.1
Houston, Tex	+.2	+1.4	+.5	+2.9	+25.5	+27.1
Kansas City, Mo	+.4	+1.7	+.6	+4.8	+30.5	+30.2
Los Angeles, Calif	+.6	+3.0	+2.4	+6.7	+30.9	+33.5
Minneapolis, Minn	+.7	+2.8	+2.0	+4.6	+25.1	+27.8
New York, N. Y	+.5	+4.4	+3.2	+8.1	+32.9	+35.6
Philadelphia, Pa	+.6	+2.5	+1.6	+4.6	+31.6	+33.4
Pittsburgh, Pa	+.2	+2.5	+1.5	+5.8	+30.5	+34.2
St. Louis, Mo	+.3	+2.5	+1.6	+4.4	+28.2	+32.0
San Francisco, Calif	+.6	+2.2	+1.7	+5.2	+32.4	+35.8
Savannah, Ga	0	+2.4	+.6	+5.5	+37.2	+40.1
Seattle, Wash	+.5	+2.3	+1.7	+4.4	+32.4	+34.8
Washington, D. C	−.2	+2.9	+1.9	+6.1	+31.4	+33.2

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Consumers' Price Index April 1946 to May 1946, by Cities and Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice			House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
				Total	Gas and electricity	Other fuels and ice		
Average	+0.5	+0.6	+0.7	−0.1	−0.4	+0.1	+0.7	+0.2
Atlanta, Ga	-------	−[1].4	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Baltimore, Md	+.2	−.1	+1.1	0	0	0	+3.2	−.2
Birmingham, Ala	+.5	+[2]1.2	+.7	0	0	0	+2.0	−.3
Boston, Mass	0	−.6	+1.7	0	+.1	0	+.5	+.1
Buffalo, N. Y	+.2	+.1	+.7	0	0	0	−.3	+.5
Chicago, Ill	+.2	0	+1.1	−1.3	−3.2	+.1	+.8	+.4
Cincinnati, Ohio	+.6	+.9	+.6	0	0	+.1	+1.3	+.7
Cleveland, Ohio	+.8	+1.2	+.1	0	0	0	−.3	+1.2
Denver, Colo	+.5	+.9	+.8	0	0	0	+.5	+.1
Detroit, Mich	+.5	+1.1	+.2	0	0	0	+.6	+.4
Houston, Tex	+.2	0	+.9	0	0	0	+.6	+.1
Indianapolis, Ind	-------	+.7	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Jacksonville, Fla	-------	−.5	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Kansas City, Mo	+.4	+.7	+.3	0	0	0	+1.1	+.1
Los Angeles, Calif	+.6	+1.1	+.9	0	0	0	+1.0	0
Manchester, N. H	-------	+1.0	-------	+.1	+.2	0	-------	-------
Memphis, Tenn	-------	+1.3	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Milwaukee, Wis	-------	+1.8	-------	+.1	0	+.1	-------	-------
Minneapolis, Minn	+.7	+1.4	+.7	+.5	0	+.7	+.9	+.3
Mobile, Ala	-------	−.2	-------	+.1	0	0	-------	-------
New Orleans, La	-------	+.1	-------	−.1	−.1	0	-------	-------
New York, N. Y	+.5	+1.0	+.5	−.2	−.4	0	+.9	+.2
Norfolk, Va	-------	−.5	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Philadelphia, Pa	+.6	+1.0	+.6	0	0	+.1	+.5	+.3
Pittsburgh, Pa	+.2	+.2	+.5	0	−.2	0	+.7	+.3
Portland, Maine	-------	0	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Portland, Oreg	-------	+1.1	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Richmond, Va	-------	+.4	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
St. Louis, Mo	+.3	+.8	+.7	−1.0	−2.4	0	−.5	+.1
San Francisco, Calif	+.6	+.7	+1.6	0	0	0	+1.5	+.1
Savannah, Ga	0	+[1].1	−1.0	0	0	0	+1.2	+.4
Scranton, Pa	-------	+.3	-------	0	0	0	-------	-------
Seattle, Wash	+.5	+.5	+1.7	0	0	0	−.1	+.3
Washington, D. C	−.2	−.8	−.1	+.1	0	0	+.5	+.1

[1] April meat prices used in computation of May food price index because of extensive shortages of meat in May. Increases subsequent to April will be fully reflected in the index as soon as supplies improve.
[2] Revised food index, April 1946=142.3.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Consumers' Prices for Moderate-Income Families in Large Cities, 1935 to May 1946*

Year and month	Indexes (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943	123.6	138.0	129.7	108.0	107.7	125.6	115.8
1944	125.5	136.1	138.8	108.2	109.8	136.4	121.3
1945	128.4	139.1	145.9	108.3	110.3	145.8	124.1
1945:							
Jan. 15	127.1	137.3	143.0	(1)	109.7	143.6	123.3
Feb. 15	126.9	136.5	143.3	(1)	110.0	144.0	123.4
Mar. 15	126.8	135.9	143.7	108.3	110.0	144.5	123.6
Apr. 15	127.1	136.6	144.1	(1)	109.8	144.9	123.8
May 15	128.1	138.8	144.6	(1)	110.0	145.4	123.9
June 15	129.0	141.1	145.4	108.3	110.0	145.8	124.0
July 15	129.4	141.7	145.9	(1)	111.2	145.6	124.3
Aug. 15	129.3	140.9	146.4	(1)	111.4	146.0	124.5
Sept. 15	128.9	139.4	148.2	108.3	110.7	146.8	124.6
Oct. 15	128.9	139.3	148.5	(1)	110.5	146.9	124.7
Nov. 15	129.3	140.1	148.7	(1)	110.1	147.6	124.6
Dec. 15	129.9	141.4	149.4	108.3	110.3	148.3	124.8
1946:							
Jan. 15	129.9	141.0	149.7	(1)	110.8	148.8	125.4
Feb. 15	129.6	139.6	150.5	(1)	111.0	149.7	125.6
Mar. 15	130.2	140.1	153.1	108.4	110.5	150.2	125.9
Apr. 15	130.9	141.7	154.5	(1)	110.4	151.2	126.0
May 15	131.5	142.6	155.4	(1)	110.3	152.4	126.3

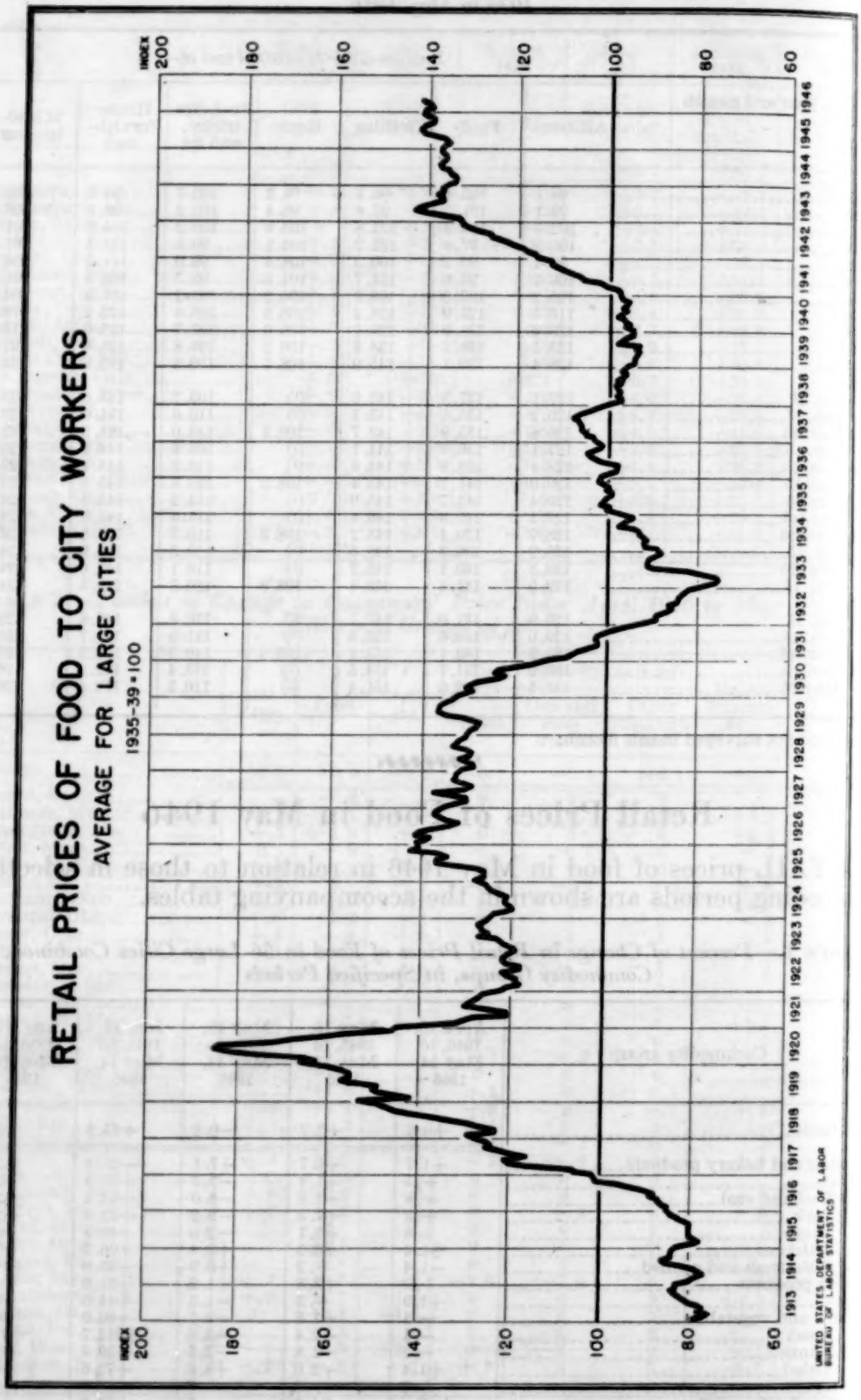
[1] Rents not surveyed in this month.

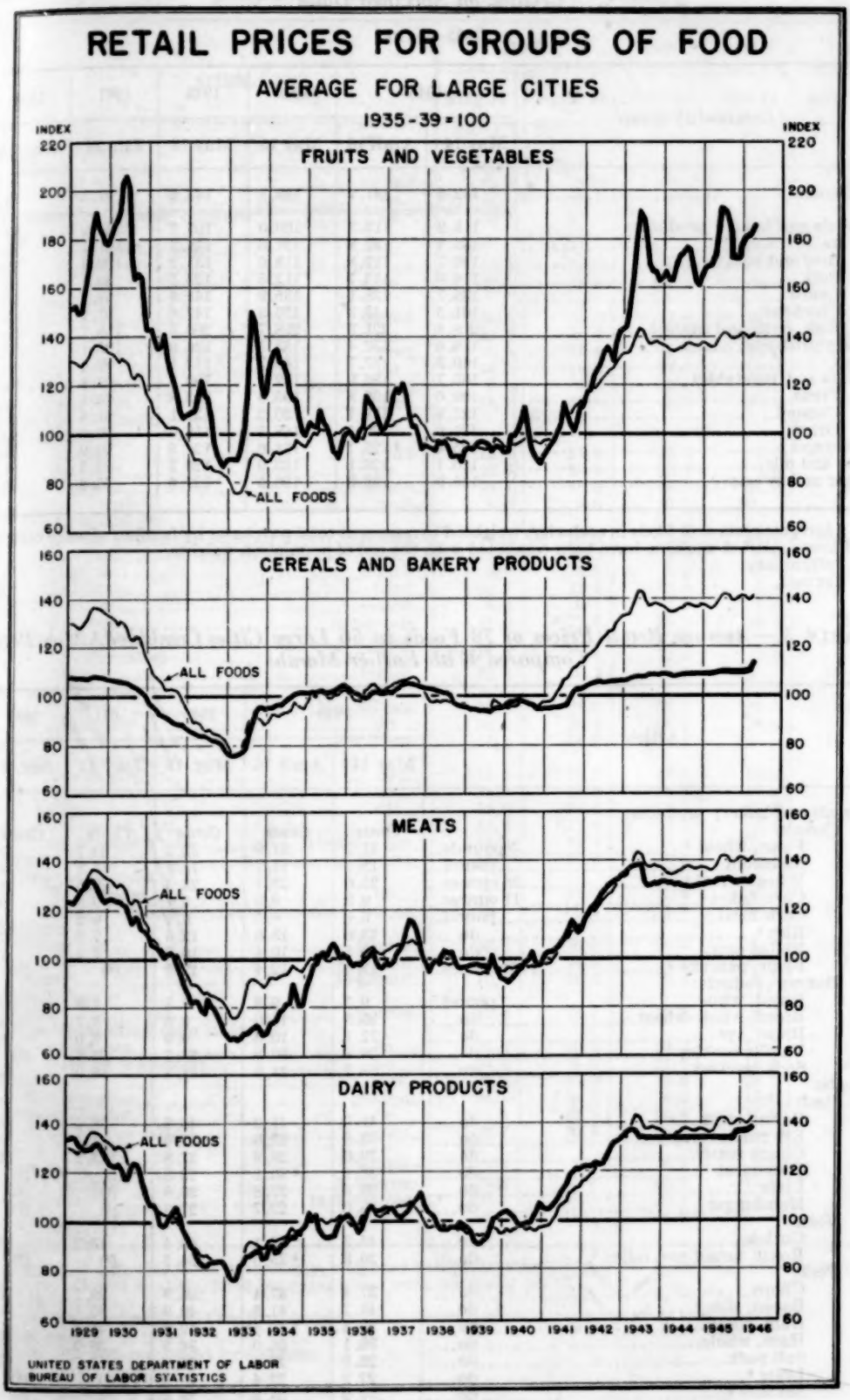
Retail Prices of Food in May 1946

RETAIL prices of food in May 1946 in relation to those in selected preceding periods are shown in the accompanying tables.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups, in Specified Periods*

Commodity group	April 16, 1946, to May 14, 1946	May 15, 1945, to May 14, 1946	May 18, 1943, to May 14, 1946	Jan. 14, 1941, to May 14, 1946	Aug. 15, 1939, to May 14, 1946
All foods	+0.6	+2.7	−0.3	+45.8	+52.5
Cereals and bakery products	+1.7	+5.7	+7.1	+21.4	+23.3
Meats	+.5	+1.4	−3.5	+31.9	+39.4
Beef and veal	+.8	+1.8	−8.0	+10.3	+21.2
Pork	+.3	+1.3	−9.2	+32.4	+29.5
Lamb	+.4	+2.1	−2.0	+40.5	+40.4
Chickens	+1.4	+3.3	+9.4	+66.2	+70.7
Fish, fresh and canned	−1.4	−.2	+8.9	+83.9	+119.2
Dairy products	+.9	+3.8	+1.2	+31.9	+48.9
Eggs	+1.9	−.3	−1.3	+44.0	+54.7
Fruits and vegetables	−.1	+1.8	−2.7	+99.0	+101.0
Fresh	−.1	+2.4	−3.0	+113.7	+115.1
Canned	−.7	−1.8	−2.5	+39.8	+39.5
Dried	+1.4	+2.0	+8.8	+72.6	+90.4
Beverages	+.2	+.6	+.7	+38.0	+32.1
Fats and oils	0	+1.8	−.2	+57.0	+49.2
Sugar and sweets	+.4	+7.4	+6.5	+42.6	+42.2


RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD TO CITY WORKERS
AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES
1935-39=100
INDEX
200
180
160
140
120
100
80
60
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS


RETAIL PRICES FOR GROUPS OF FOOD
AVERAGE FOR LARGE CITIES
1935-39=100
INDEX
FRUITS AND VEGETABLES
ALL FOODS
CEREALS AND BAKERY PRODUCTS
ALL FOODS
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ALL FOODS
1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
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TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] by Commodity Groups, on Specified Dates*

[1935–39=100]

Commodity group	1946		1945	1943	1941	1939
	May 14 [2]	April 16	May 15	May 18	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	142.6	141.7	138.8	143.0	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	115.2	113.3	109.0	107.6	94.9	93.4
Meats	133.4	132.8	131.6	138.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	120.7	119.8	118.6	131.2	109.4	99.6
Pork	114.0	113.7	112.5	125.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	138.7	138.1	135.9	141.6	98.7	98.8
Chickens	161.5	159.3	156.3	147.6	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	218.3	221.3	218.7	200.5	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	138.6	137.4	133.5	136.9	105.1	93.1
Eggs	140.3	137.7	140.7	142.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	185.7	185.9	182.5	190.8	93.3	92.4
Fresh	199.6	199.8	195.0	205.8	93.4	92.8
Canned	127.8	128.7	130.2	131.1	91.4	91.6
Dried	171.9	169.5	168.5	158.0	99.6	90.3
Beverages	125.4	[3] 125.1	124.6	124.5	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	126.1	126.1	123.9	126.3	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	135.9	135.3	126.5	127.6	95.3	95.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Revised.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,[1] May 1946, Compared With Earlier Months*

Article		1946		1945	1941	1939
		May 14 [2]	April 16	May 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat [3]	5 pounds	31.7	31.9	32.1	20.7	17.9
Macaroni	pound	15.7	15.7	15.8	13.8	14.0
Wheat cereal [4]	28 ounces	23.0	23.1	23.3	23.5	24.2
Corn flakes [5]	11 ounces	9.3	9.3	9.1	9.8	9.7
Corn meal	pound	6.6	6.5	6.4	4.2	4.0
Rice [4]	do	13.0	13.0	12.8	7.9	7.5
Rolled oats	do	10.5	10.4	10.3	7.1	7.1
Flour, pancake [4]	20 ounces	12.4	12.4	12.3	(6)	(6)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	9.5	9.3	8.8	7.8	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat	do	10.3	10.0	9.6	8.7	8.8
Bread, rye	do	12.1	10.5	9.9	9.0	9.2
Vanilla cookies	do	28.8	30.0	28.7	25.1	(6)
Soda crackers	do	18.7	18.6	18.9	15.0	14.8
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	41.6	41.2	40.2	38.6	36.4
Rib roast	do	33.8	33.6	32.6	31.5	28.9
Chuck roast	do	29.0	28.9	27.8	25.2	22.5
Stew meat [4]	do	30.1	[7] 30.1	29.3	(6)	(6)
Liver	do	38.6	37.8	36.6	(6)	(6)
Hamburger	do	28.0	27.7	27.3	(6)	(6)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	45.3	45.1	43.4	45.2	42.5
Roast, boned and rolled [4]	do	36.3	[7] 35.6	34.5	(6)	(6)
Pork:						
Chops	do	37.4	37.4	36.9	29.1	30.9
Bacon, sliced	do	41.7	41.5	40.9	30.1	30.4
Ham, sliced	do	50.3	[7] 50.4	49.2	45.1	46.4
Ham, whole	do	36.1	36.0	34.5	26.2	27.4
Salt pork	do	22.8	22.6	22.2	16.7	15.4
Liver [4]	do	22.2	22.4	22.0	(6)	(6)
Sausage [4]	do	39.2	38.9	38.0	(6)	(6)
Bologna, big [4]	do	34.4	34.2	33.9	(6)	(6)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *May 1946, Compared With Earlier Months*—Continued

Article		1946		1945	1941	1939
		May 14 [1]	April 16	May 15	Jan 14	Aug. 15
Meats—Continued						
Lamb:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Leg	pound	40.9	40.7	39.7	27.8	27.6
Rib chops	do	46.6	46.3	45.1	35.0	36.7
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	48.9	48.3	47.0	31.1	30.9
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7)	(7) 8
Salmon, pink	16-ounce can	24.6	24.8	23.5	15.7	12.8
Salmon, red [4]	do	43.3	43.9	40.2	26.4	23.1
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	55.1	55.0	49.9	38.0	30.7
Cheese	do	39.4	38.4	35.5	27.0	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.6	15.4	15.6	13.0	12.0
Milk, fresh (store)	do	14.7	14.6	14.5	11.9	11.0
Milk, evaporated	14½-ounce can	9.9	9.9	10.1	7.1	6.7
Eggs: Eggs, fresh	dozen	48.7	47.8	49.7	34.9	32.0
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits:						
Apples	pound	14.9	14.8	12.3	5.2	4.4
Bananas	do	10.9	10.9	10.4	6.6	6.1
Oranges	dozen	48.4	45.0	48.1	27.3	31.5
Grapefruit [4]	each	8.8	8.6	10.1	(6)	(6)
Fresh vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	18.6	20.5	18.9	14.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	7.2	8.0	5.8	3.4	3.9
Carrots	bunch	9.0	8.8	9.0	6.0	4.6
Lettuce	head	10.7	11.4	12.0	8.4	8.4
Onions	pound	8.3	9.6	7.1	3.6	3.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	81.0	[9] 77.8	88.2	29.2	34.4
Spinach	pound	9.8	10.2	12.4	7.3	7.8
Sweetpotatoes	do	11.9	11.4	10.0	5.0	5.5
Beets [4]	bunch	10.3	10.2	10.9	(6)	(6)
Canned fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	27.9	28.0	27.4	16.5	17.1
Pineapple	do	26.2	26.4	26.7	20.9	21.0
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	14.1	14.0	14.4	(6)	(6)
Canned vegetables:						
Beans, green	do	13.5	13.6	13.1	10.0	10.0
Corn	do	14.8	14.8	14.8	10.7	10.4
Peas	do	13.6	13.6	13.3	13.2	13.6
Tomatoes	do	12.6	[9] 12.8	12.2	8.4	8.6
Soup, vegetable [4]	11-ounce can	13.3	13.3	13.4	(6)	(6)
Dried fruits: Prunes	pound	17.7	17.6	18.0	9.6	8.8
Dried vegetables:						
Navy beans	do	12.2	11.9	11.4	6.5	5.8
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle [4]	ounce	3.9	3.9	3.8	(6)	(6)
Beverages:						
Coffee	pound	30.5	[9] 30.4	30.4	20.7	22.3
Tea	¼-pound	24.0	24.0	24.2	17.6	17.2
Cocoa [4]	½-pound	10.4	10.4	10.4	9.1	8.6
Fats and oils:						
Lard	pound	18.8	18.7	18.8	9.3	9.9
Shortening other than lard:						
In cartons	do	20.2	20.2	20.2	11.3	11.7
In other containers	do	24.8	24.8	24.6	18.3	20.2
Salad dressing	pint	27.9	28.3	25.6	20.1	(6)
Oleomargarine	pound	24.3	[9] 24.2	24.2	15.6	16.5
Peanut butter	do	33.6	33.3	28.4	17.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad [4]	pint	30.7	30.4	30.8	(6)	(6)
Sugar and sweets:						
Sugar	pound	7.3	7.2	6.7	5.1	5.2
Corn sirup	24 ounces	15.8	15.6	15.8	13.6	13.7
Molasses [4] [8]	16 fl. ounces	20.4	20.3	20.4	17.3	17.6
Apple butter [4]	16 ounces	14.9	15.1	13.9	(6)	(6)

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Price formerly published for 10 pounds.
[4] Not included in index.
[5] Price formerly published for 8 ounces.
[6] Not priced.
[7] Composite price not computed.
[8] Price formerly published for 18 ounces avoirdupois.
[9] Revised.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Prices of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *on Specified Dates*

[1935-39=100]

City	1946		1945	1941	1939
	May 14 [2]	April 16	May 15	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
United States	142.6	141.7	138.8	97.8	93.5
Atlanta, Ga.	140.5	140.8	138.3	94.3	92.5
Baltimore, Md.	149.3	149.4	146.9	97.9	94.7
Birmingham, Ala.	144.0	[4] 142.3	141.4	96.0	90.7
Boston, Mass.	135.1	135.9	133.0	95.2	93.5
Bridgeport, Conn.	136.9	135.2	135.9	96.5	93.2
Buffalo, N. Y.	139.0	138.8	137.1	100.2	94.5
Butte, Mont.	136.3	135.9	136.5	98.7	94.1
Cedar Rapids, Iowa [3]	148.1	144.9	142.7	95.9	----
Charleston, S. C.	139.6	138.9	134.8	95.9	95.1
Chicago, Ill.	141.9	141.9	139.5	98.2	92.3
Cincinnati, Ohio	139.1	137.9	137.5	96.5	90.4
Cleveland, Ohio	146.2	144.5	144.6	99.2	93.6
Columbus, Ohio	133.2	133.3	130.7	93.4	88.1
Dallas, Tex.	139.5	138.2	134.2	92.6	91.7
Denver, Colo.	141.7	140.5	141.8	94.8	92.7
Detroit, Mich.	141.6	140.1	135.0	97.0	90.6
Fall River, Mass.	134.5	133.7	131.9	97.5	95.4
Houston, Tex.	139.7	139.7	138.4	102.6	97.8
Indianapolis, Ind.	138.6	137.7	135.1	98.2	90.7
Jackson, Miss. [3]	145.7	145.2	147.4	105.3	----
Jacksonville, Fla.	147.3	148.0	146.4	98.8	95.8
Kansas City, Mo.	134.9	134.0	132.4	92.4	91.5
Knoxville, Tenn. [3]	162.4	159.7	157.8	97.1	----
Little Rock, Ark.	141.6	141.2	138.0	95.6	94.0
Los Angeles, Calif.	150.7	149.0	144.5	101.8	94.6
Louisville, Ky.	133.2	133.8	131.2	95.5	92.1
Manchester, N. H.	139.2	137.8	133.9	96.6	94.9
Memphis, Tenn.	151.7	149.8	146.9	94.2	89.7
Milwaukee, Wis.	140.8	138.3	138.1	95.9	91.1
Minneapolis, Minn.	134.9	133.0	131.2	99.0	95.0
Mobile, Ala.	148.3	148.6	144.9	97.9	95.5
Newark, N. J.	144.6	143.1	139.9	98.8	95.6
New Haven, Conn.	136.9	136.8	136.3	95.7	93.7
New Orleans, La.	153.8	153.6	153.0	101.9	97.6
New York, N. Y.	145.9	144.5	139.6	99.5	95.8
Norfolk, Va.	146.4	147.2	142.4	95.8	93.6
Omaha, Nebr.	136.8	134.6	133.9	97.9	92.3
Peoria, Ill.	148.1	146.8	142.1	99.0	93.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	141.0	139.6	137.7	95.0	93.0
Pittsburgh, Pa.	142.8	142.5	137.1	98.0	92.5
Portland, Maine	135.4	135.4	133.4	95.3	95.9
Portland, Oreg.	153.2	151.5	149.9	101.7	96.1
Providence, R. I.	141.2	141.8	136.0	96.3	93.7
Richmond, Va.	137.3	136.7	134.5	93.7	92.2
Rochester, N. Y.	139.5	138.6	135.4	99.9	92.3
St. Louis, Mo.	144.5	143.4	141.7	99.2	93.8
St. Paul, Minn.	133.6	131.9	130.1	98.6	94.3
Salt Lake City, Utah	145.8	143.5	142.5	97.5	94.6
San Francisco, Calif.	150.4	149.3	145.7	99.6	93.8
Savannah, Ga.	155.8	155.7	151.7	100.5	96.7
Scranton, Pa.	143.8	143.3	139.8	97.5	92.1
Seattle, Wash.	147.1	146.3	144.4	101.0	94.5
Springfield, Ill.	147.3	145.8	144.3	96.2	94.1
Washington, D. C.	141.1	142.2	139.7	97.7	94.1
Wichita, Kans. [3]	151.7	149.4	151.7	97.2	----
Winston-Salem, N. C. [3]	143.1	141.7	139.9	93.7	----

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 foods in each city weighted to represent total purchases by wage earners and low salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] June 1940=100.

[4] Revised.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Prices in 56 Large Cities Combined, 1913 to May 1946*

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1927	132.3	1941	105.5	*1945*	
1914	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9		
1915	80.9	1929	132.5	1943	138.0	August	140.9
1916	90.8	1930	126.0	1944	136.1	September	139.4
1917	116.9	1931	103.9	1945	139.1	October	139.3
1918	134.4	1932	86.5			November	140.1
1919	149.8	1933	84.1	*1945*		December	141.4
1920	168.8	1934	93.7	January	137.3	*1946*	
1921	128.3	1935	100.4	February	136.5		
1922	119.9	1936	101.3	March	135.9	January	141.0
1923	124.0	1937	105.3	April	136.6	February	139.6
1924	122.8	1938	97.8	May	138.8	March	140.1
1925	132.9	1939	95.2	June	141.1	April	141.7
1926	137.4	1940	96.6	July	141.7	May	142.6

Retail Prices of Coal in 1945

RETAIL prices for bituminous coal sold to domestic consumers rose about 2 percent in 1945, and for domestic sizes of anthracite about 3½ percent.

Bituminous-coal prices were advanced an average of 16 cents per ton at the mine on May 1 to cover wage adjustments and maintain 1942 profit margins of the industry. By June 15, increases had affected retail markets in most large cities and prices were over 2 percent, or about 21 cents, above those of January. Increases during the rest of 1945 were very small and were due to the same influences on mine prices. Unlike the earlier advances, they were not followed by a rise in coke price ceilings.

With the same objective of maintaining mine profit margins despite higher wage costs, the OPA allowed an increase of 75 cents per ton in ceilings for all sizes of anthracite on June 18, with a rise of $1 for stove and chestnut sizes, the most important to domestic consumers. Pea and buckwheat No. 1 prices advanced 85 cents and 50 cents per ton, respectively. On December 1, an additional average rise of 19 cents per ton was allowed on anthracite to cover the amounts by which producers were failing to receive their assured 1942 margins. The average increase allowed at this time in prices charged by the nine largest producers for all sizes was 11.6 cents per ton, while other companies were allowed an average increase of 32 cents. The increasing sales of anthracite under special price ceilings raised average prices paid by consumers for the large domestic sizes somewhat more than the 15-cent increase granted the nine largest producers for these large sizes.

Supplies of coal during 1945 were substantially affected by labor disputes, and the losses in bituminous-coal production alone were considerable. These disputes involved both anthracite and bituminous-coal miners in the spring, with new wage contracts agreed upon only after work stoppages. During the summer and early fall there was a further interruption in operations when bituminous-coal super-

visory workers sought recognition of the United Clerical, Technical and Supervisory Workers Union as their collective bargaining agency. September and October orders were the last issued by the Solid Fuels Administration for War covering distribution of solid fuels by retailers to domestic consumers. Orders were issued at intervals during the winter, however, directing mine shipments to retailers to alleviate local scarcities as they developed.

The following table shows average prices and indexes for bituminous coal and for stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite, by years for 1929 through 1945, and by months for 1944 and 1945.

Average Retail Prices and Indexes for Coal in Large Cities, 1929–45

Year and month	Average price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Indexes (October 1922–September 1925=100) of—		
	Bituminous coal (unweighted average, 34 cities)[1]	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 23 cities)[2]		Bituminous coal (unweighted average, 34 cities)[1]	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 23 cities)[2]	
		Stove	Chestnut		Stove	Chestnut
1929	$8.85	$14.14	$13.70	91.5	100.5	97.7
1930	8.83	14.03	13.66	91.3	99.7	97.3
1931	8.33	13.68	13.65	86.2	97.1	97.3
1932	7.71	12.55	12.45	79.7	89.2	88.7
1933	7.65	12.12	11.93	79.1	86.2	85.0
1934	8.26	12.18	11.92	85.4	86.6	85.0
1935	8.29	11.38	11.14	85.7	80.9	79.4
1936	8.42	11.74	11.61	87.1	83.5	82.7
1937	8.58	11.05	11.19	88.4	78.5	79.6
1938	8.61	10.96	11.11	88.7	77.9	79.1
1939	8.52	10.79	10.84	87.7	76.7	77.2
1940	8.60	11.33	11.35	87.9	80.5	80.8
1941	9.10	11.92	11.97	92.6	84.7	85.2
1942	9.51	12.41	12.47	96.7	88.1	88.7
1943	9.94	13.15	13.20	100.9	93.4	93.9
1944	10.27	13.89	13.94	104.3	98.7	99.2
1945	10.49	14.30	14.43	106.5	102.1	102.7
1944						
January	10.19	13.90	13.92	103.5	98.7	99.1
February	10.22	14.36	14.37	103.8	102.0	102.3
March	10.22	13.97	14.04	103.8	99.2	99.9
April	10.24	13.97	14.04	104.0	99.2	99.9
May	10.27	13.93	13.96	104.3	99.0	99.3
June	10.28	13.80	13.85	104.4	98.0	98.6
July	10.29	13.80	13.84	104.5	98.0	98.5
August	10.31	13.80	13.84	104.6	98.0	98.5
September	10.31	13.80	13.84	104.6	98.0	98.5
October	10.31	13.80	13.85	104.7	98.1	98.6
November	10.32	13.80	13.86	104.7	98.1	98.6
December	10.33	13.81	13.86	104.8	98.1	98.7
1945						
January	10.33	13.81	13.87	104.8	98.1	98.7
February	10.35	13.94	14.00	105.0	99.0	99.6
March	10.36	13.90	13.98	105.1	98.7	99.5
April	10.34	13.82	13.88	105.0	98.2	98.8
May	10.50	13.81	13.87	106.6	98.1	98.7
June	10.55	13.82	13.87	107.1	98.2	98.7
July	10.55	14.83	14.89	107.2	105.4	106.0
August	10.57	14.84	14.91	107.4	105.4	106.1
September	10.58	14.86	14.93	107.5	105.6	106.3
October	10.58	14.86	14.92	107.5	105.6	106.2
November	10.59	14.87	14.93	107.5	105.6	106.2
December	10.59	15.03	15.08	107.6	106.8	107.3

[1] 38 cities prior to September 1940; 37 cities, September and October 1940; 36 cities, November 1940; 35 cities, December 1940 through April 1945.

[2] 24 cities, July through December 1944; 25 cities before July 1944.

Wholesale Prices in May 1946

PRIMARY market prices continued to advance during May 1946, with higher prices for many commodities. The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price index [1] rose 0.7 percent to a level 5 percent above August 1945 and 48 percent above August 1939.

As in preceding months, both agricultural and nonagricultural commodities shared in the advance during May. Farm products prices rose 1.6 percent, foods 0.6 percent, and all other commodities an average of 0.6 percent. Major rises for nonagricultural commodities were 1.0 percent for building materials, 0.8 percent for textile products, 0.6 percent for metals and metal products, and 1.4 percent for miscellaneous commodities.

The rise of 1.6 percent in market prices of farm products was due primarily to higher prices for grains, following ceiling adjustments designed to stimulate production and marketing of these scarce commodities. Grain quotations in May averaged approximately 8 percent higher than during the month of April. Egg prices advanced with consumer demand augmented by the meat shortage, and prices paid to milk producers were higher in some areas with ceiling increases. Apple quotations continued to advance as supplies dwindled. New crop potatoes caused advances in average prices for potatoes in some markets. Quotations for lemons and oranges were lower, with a preponderance of small sizes. Cotton quotations declined early in the month with uncertainty occasioned by the railroad and coal strikes, while foreign wools sold at slightly lower levels.

Livestock quotations were down fractionally in May, despite short supplies, as the reimposition of slaughter controls channeled more animals to large packers. These packers, in order to comply with Federal subsidy limitations, paid somewhat lower prices for steers and cows than had prevailed on the markets during April. Prices for calves declined with poor quality, while sheep prices rose on short supplies of unusually good animals.

In the wholesale price index, prices prevailing on large exchanges are used to measure the trend of livestock prices. To the extent that animals moved through other channels at higher prices during May, the index for that month may not reflect adequately the price movement for livestock. Indexes for later months, however, will automatically correct for any understatement during this period.

The advance of 0.6 percent for foods was due largely to higher prices for fruits and vegetables. In addition to the price changes for fresh produce, dried fruits were higher with ceiling adjustments to cover wage increases while prices for canned string beans continued to advance towards ceiling.

The group index for hides and leather products advanced 0.5 percent in May, largely because of higher prices for goat skins. In addition, some types of shoes were higher.

The advance of 0.8 percent in the group index for textiles during May continued to reflect increases for cotton goods for which prices

[1] The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data, for the most part, represent prices in primary markets. In general, the prices are those charged by manufacturers or producers or are those prevailing on commodity exchanges. The monthly index is calculated from a monthly average of one-day-a-week prices. It should not be compared directly with the weekly wholesale price index, which is designed as an indicator of week-to-week changes. Indexes for the last 2 months are preliminary.

had risen in April. Price advances in May also were reported for work clothing and men's knit underwear, following ceiling increases to compensate for higher costs.

Higher prices for fabricated iron and steel products, reflecting the increases previously allowed in prices of steel-mill products, were primarily responsible for the 0.6 percent advance in the metals and metal products index. Farm machinery moved up more than 3 percent, following ceiling adjustments to cover higher material costs and approved wage increases. Hand-cutting tools advanced early in May, with higher ceilings to restore earnings and cover cost increases. Manufacturers of fasteners such as bolts, screws, and rivets also were allowed higher prices to restore earnings to base period levels. Prices for copper wire and brass-mill products advanced in May as OPA adjusted ceilings to cover recent wage increases. These price advances for nonferrous products do not reflect the higher prices recently provided for metals.

The 1.0 percent rise in average prices of building materials was due largely to price advances allowed in April for portland cement, several species of lumber, range boilers, and sewer pipe. Price advances with higher ceilings during May were reported for concrete blocks, brick, oak flooring, stock millwork, cast-iron pipe, and prepared roofing. Building materials prices were 8.5 percent above war-end levels and 43 percent above immediate prewar levels. Higher prices for nitrocellulose, explosives, and tanning extracts raised the group index for chemicals and allied products 0.4 percent in May.

The 0.7 percent advance in the index for housefurnishing goods was caused largely by higher average prices in May for wool carpets and rugs and felt-base floor coverings, all of which had advanced in price in April. In addition, electric ironers were reintroduced into the index at prices approximately 17 percent above 1942 levels. Office furniture prices continued to rise fractionally as ceiling adjustments were allowed individual manufacturers.

The rise in the group index for miscellaneous commodities was due principally to sharply higher prices for cattle feed allowed in mid-May. Wood-pulp prices averaged higher following ceiling adjustments in April. Tobacco products continued to move up in price, and small increases continued in soap prices as individual manufacturers adjusted their quotations under formula ceiling regulations. Gasoline quotations again moved up with seasonally heavier demand.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, May 1946, Compared with Previous Months*

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to May 1946 from—		
	May 1946	April 1946	May 1945	August 1939	April 1946	May 1945	August 1939
All commodities	111.0	110.2	106.0	75.0	+0.7	+4.7	+48.0
Farm products	137.5	135.4	129.9	61.0	+1.6	+5.9	+125.4
Grains	148.1	137.0	129.1	51.5	+8.1	+14.7	+187.6
Livestock and poultry	134.9	135.1	135.5	66.0	−.1	−.4	+104.4
Other farm products	135.1	134.2	125.9	60.1	+.7	+7.3	+124.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, May 1946, Compared with Previous Months*—Continued

Groups and subgroups	Indexes (1926=100)				Percent of change to May 1946 from—		
	May 1946	April 1946	May 1945	August 1939	April 1946	May 1945	August 1939
Foods	111.5	110.8	107.0	67.2	+.6	+4.2	+65.9
Dairy products	117.0	116.3	110.6	67.9	+.6	+5.8	+72.3
Cereal products	100.3	99.4	95.4	71.9	+.9	+5.1	+39.5
Fruits and vegetables	140.6	138.2	131.4	58.5	+1.7	+7.0	+140.3
Meats	110.5	110.3	108.6	73.7	+.2	+1.7	+49.9
Other foods	98.1	97.7	94.7	60.3	+.4	+3.6	+62.7
Hides and leather products	120.4	119.8	117.9	92.7	+.5	+2.1	+29.9
Shoes	128.9	128.6	126.3	100.8	+.2	+2.1	+27.9
Hides and skins	120.7	117.6	117.0	77.2	+2.6	+3.2	+56.3
Leather	104.0	104.0	101.3	84.0	0	+2.7	+23.8
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	115.2	97.1	0	0	+18.6
Textile products	108.8	107.9	99.6	67.8	+.8	+9.2	+60.5
Clothing	119.6	117.4	107.4	81.5	+1.9	+11.4	+46.7
Cotton goods	138.6	137.6	119.7	65.5	+.7	+15.8	+111.6
Hosiery and underwear	75.7	75.5	71.5	61.5	+.3	+5.9	+23.1
Rayon	30.2	30.2	30.2	28.5	0	0	+6.0
Silk				44.3			
Woolen and worsted goods	112.7	112.7	112.7	75.5	0	0	+49.3
Other textile products	111.9	110.5	100.9	63.7	+1.3	+10.9	+75.7
Fuel and lighting materials	86.1	86.1	83.7	72.6	0	+2.9	+18.6
Anthracite	104.1	104.0	95.6	72.1	+.1	+8.9	+44.4
Bituminous coal	125.3	125.2	123.2	96.0	+.1	+1.7	+30.5
Coke	133.5	133.5	130.7	104.2	0	+2.1	+28.1
Electricity	[1]	[1]	58.5	75.8			
Gas	[1]	79.7	76.4	86.7			
Petroleum and products	63.5	62.8	64.2	51.7	+1.1	−1.1	+22.8
Metals and metal products	109.4	108.8	104.3	93.2	+.6	+4.9	+17.4
Agricultural implements	101.7	98.6	97.5	93.5	+3.1	+4.3	+8.8
Farm machinery	102.7	99.6	98.7	94.7	+3.1	+4.1	+8.4
Iron and steel	107.8	107.4	98.4	95.1	+.4	+9.6	+13.4
Motor vehicles	[2]	[2]	112.8	92.5			
Nonferrous metals	89.0	87.1	85.9	74.6	+2.2	+3.6	+19.3
Plumbing and heating	100.8	100.8	92.4	79.3	0	+9.1	+27.1
Building materials	127.8	126.5	117.3	89.6	+1.0	+9.0	+42.6
Brick and tile	120.5	119.9	110.7	90.5	+.5	+8.9	+33.1
Cement	102.6	102.4	99.4	91.3	+.2	+3.2	+12.4
Lumber	172.5	171.4	154.9	90.1	+.6	+11.4	+91.5
Paint and paint materials	108.2	108.0	106.4	82.1	+.2	+1.7	+31.8
Plumbing and heating	100.8	100.8	92.4	79.3	0	+9.1	+27.1
Structural steel	120.1	120.1	107.3	107.3	0	+11.9	+11.9
Other building materials	115.7	112.8	104.1	89.5	+2.6	+11.1	+29.3
Chemicals and allied products	96.5	96.1	94.9	74.2	+.4	+1.7	+30.1
Chemicals	97.9	97.1	95.8	83.8	+.8	+2.2	+16.8
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	112.4	112.4	106.8	77.1	0	+5.2	+45.8
Fertilizer materials	81.9	81.9	81.9	65.5	0	0	+25.0
Mixed fertilizer	86.6	86.6	86.6	73.1	0	0	+18.5
Oils and fats	102.1	102.1	102.0	40.6	0	+.1	+151.5
Housefurnishings	108.3	107.5	104.5	85.6	+.7	+3.6	+26.5
Furnishings	113.4	112.1	107.5	90.0	+1.2	+5.5	+26.0
Furniture	102.9	102.9	101.5	81.1	0	+1.4	+26.9
Miscellaneous	97.0	95.7	94.8	73.3	+1.4	+2.3	+32.3
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	73.0	60.5	0	0	+20.7
Cattle feed	173.6	159.6	159.6	68.4	+8.8	+8.8	+153.8
Paper and pulp	115.3	113.9	109.0	80.0	+1.2	+5.8	+44.1
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.2	46.2	34.9	0	0	+32.4
Other miscellaneous	100.2	99.2	98.9	81.3	+1.0	+1.3	+23.2
Raw materials	123.6	122.2	117.7	66.5	+1.1	+5.0	+85.9
Semimanufactured articles	101.9	101.1	95.0	74.5	+.8	+7.3	+36.8
Manufactured products	106.1	105.5	101.8	79.1	+.6	+4.2	+34.1
All commodities other than farm products	105.1	104.5	100.6	77.9	+.6	+4.5	+34.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	103.9	103.3	99.4	80.1	+.6	+4.5	+29.7

[1] No quotation.
[2] In process of revision.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to May 1946

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1945, and by months from May 1945 to May 1946, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.4	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	95.5	102.4	89.7	98.8
1943	122.6	106.6	117.5	97.4	80.8	103.8	111.4	94.9	102.7	92.2	103.1
1944	123.3	104.9	116.7	98.4	83.0	103.8	115.5	95.2	104.3	93.6	104.0
1945	128.2	106.2	118.1	100.1	84.0	104.7	117.8	95.2	104.5	94.7	105.8
1945											
May	129.9	107.0	117.9	99.6	83.7	104.3	117.3	94.9	104.5	94.8	106.0
June	130.4	107.5	118.0	99.6	83.9	104.7	117.4	95.0	104.5	94.8	106.1
July	129.0	106.9	118.0	99.6	84.3	104.7	117.5	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.9
August	126.9	106.4	118.0	99.6	84.8	104.7	117.8	95.3	104.5	94.8	105.7
September	124.3	104.9	118.7	100.1	84.1	104.9	118.0	95.3	104.6	94.8	105.2
October	127.3	105.7	118.6	101.0	84.2	105.0	118.3	95.5	104.7	94.8	105.9
November	131.1	107.9	118.8	101.1	84.6	105.2	118.7	95.7	104.7	94.8	106.8
December	131.5	108.6	118.9	101.4	84.8	105.6	119.5	96.1	104.7	94.8	107.1
1946											
January	129.9	107.3	119.4	101.6	84.9	105.7	120.0	96.0	106.2	95.3	107.1
February	130.8	107.8	119.6	102.2	85.1	106.6	120.9	95.9	106.5	95.6	107.7
March	133.4	109.4	119.8	104.7	85.0	108.4	124.9	96.0	106.9	95.6	108.9
April	135.4	110.8	119.8	107.9	86.1	108.8	126.5	96.1	107.5	95.7	110.2
May	137.5	111.5	120.4	108.8	86.1	109.4	127.8	96.5	108.3	97.0	111.0

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 and 11 of Wholesale Prices, July-December and Year 1943 (Bulletin No. 785).

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semimanufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5
1943	112.1	92.9	100.1	98.7	96.9
1944	113.2	94.1	100.8	99.6	98.5
1945	116.8	95.9	101.8	100.8	99.7
1945					
May	117.7	95.0	101.8	100.6	99.4
June	118.2	95.4	101.8	100.7	99.6
July	117.5	95.3	101.8	100.7	99.7
August	116.3	95.5	101.8	100.9	99.9
September	114.8	96.5	101.7	100.9	99.8
October	116.6	96.8	101.9	101.0	100.1
November	118.9	96.9	102.2	101.3	100.2
December	119.2	97.6	102.5	101.6	100.5
1946					
January	118.3	97.6	102.9	101.9	100.8
February	118.9	98.8	103.4	102.5	101.3
March	120.5	100.4	104.5	103.4	102.2
April	122.2	101.1	105.5	104.5	103.3
May	123.6	101.9	106.1	105.1	103.9

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during April and May 1946 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, April and May 1946*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	May 25	May 18	May 11	May 4	April 27	April 20	April 13	April 6
All commodities	110.7	110.9	110.1	109.9	109.6	109.6	109.3	109.1
Farm products	137.2	137.9	135.8	135.6	135.5	135.4	135.1	135.2
Foods	111.0	111.5	110.9	110.7	110.3	110.4	109.9	109.7
Hides and leather products	120.9	120.9	120.3	120.3	120.3	120.3	120.3	120.1
Textile products	108.2	108.2	106.7	106.7	105.5	105.2	105.0	104.5
Fuel and lighting materials	87.1	87.0	87.0	87.0	86.6	86.6	86.5	85.5
Metals and metal products	109.4	109.3	109.3	109.1	109.0	109.0	108.2	108.0
Building materials	127.2	126.9	126.8	126.6	126.0	126.0	124.0	124.0
Chemicals and allied products	96.6	96.3	96.2	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.1	96.0
Housefurnishing goods	109.4	109.4	108.9	108.7	108.7	108.7	108.7	108.7
Miscellaneous	96.6	96.3	96.2	96.2	95.5	95.4	95.4	95.4
Raw materials	124.2	124.6	123.2	123.1	123.0	123.0	122.8	122.2
Semimanufactured articles	101.7	101.7	101.6	101.5	101.2	100.8	100.8	100.6
Manufactured products	106.2	106.1	105.6	105.5	105.1	105.1	104.8	104.6
All commodities other than farm products	104.9	104.8	104.4	104.3	103.9	103.9	103.7	103.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	104.1	104.0	103.7	103.6	103.1	103.1	102.8	102.4

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices of Paper and Pulp

TO MEET the increasing demand for more detailed information on the price movements of wood pulp, paperboard, and paper, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has prepared index numbers of wholesale prices for these new subgroupings. Previously, the only index available was for a subgroup of the comprehensive wholesale price index, which showed the movement of composite prices for paper and pulp. A break-down of the paper and pulp index was made, and the indexes for the new subgroups, for the years 1926 through 1945, are shown in the table following:

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices of Paper and Pulp and Specified Product Classifications, by Years, 1926–45

[1926 = 100]

Year	Paper and pulp	Wood pulp	Paperboard	Paper
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1927	93.8	92.4	103.0	91.1
1928	91.4	88.7	96.3	90.7
1929	88.9	88.4	86.7	88.9
1930	86.1	86.2	74.4	88.7
1931	81.4	79.4	62.7	85.9
1932	75.5	64.0	57.9	80.2
1933	76.6	65.4	75.7	76.6
1934	82.7	78.2	86.9	80.0
1935	80.0	72.2	78.7	80.3
1936	80.7	75.2	79.1	80.6
1937	91.7	116.8	90.6	85.7
1938	85.0	85.6	70.0	87.4
1939	82.4	73.6	71.8	85.2
1940	91.7	112.2	82.1	89.3
1941	98.2	124.0	92.3	93.8
1942	100.8	128.7	95.1	96.2
1943	104.1	128.9	102.4	98.7
1944	107.1	138.9	104.7	100.7
1945	108.8	140.6	109.1	101.8

These special index numbers have been calculated by regrouping the weighted price series used in the calculations of the Bureau's index numbers of wholesale prices for paper and pulp. In addition to employing the identical price series and weighting factors, the method of computation is also similar to that employed in the calculation of the comprehensive wholesale price index. The base period is the year 1926.

Prices for the following wood pulp grades are included in the wood pulp index: Northern unbleached sulphate; domestic unbleached sulphite; domestic and Canadian No. 1 (mechanical) groundwood; and bleached soda pulp.

The paperboard (formerly called boxboard) index is based on composite prices for both central and eastern territories on unlined and single-lined chipboard, No. 90 or heavier; 85-pound test liner; and 0.009 corrugating paper.

The paper index is composed of prices for grade B book paper; standard newsprint, rolls; No. 1 white tissue; and standard Kraft wrapping paper.

These indexes are also available by months from January 1933 to date. They will be maintained and issued on a quarterly basis to

those who request this information from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

Revised Wholesale Price Series for Gas

WITH the effective cooperation of the American gas industry, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has completed an extensive revision of its wholesale price series for gas. In March 1946 this revised series was introduced into the calculation of the wholesale price index. The revised specification was "monthly average realized price per dekatherm (1,000,000 British thermal units) for gas to industrial consumers and for electric power generation, adjusted to eliminate seasonal variation." Monthly reports are filed through the American Gas Association by utilities, selling over 60 percent of all gas in the United States, meeting this specification. To obtain the average price for the country as a whole, the average realized price in each census region is weighted by gas consumption in that region separately for each type of gas (natural or manufactured and mixed). Data for 1941 covering sales of gas for this specification were used for weighting each census region and each type of gas. The calculation of the seasonal adjustment factors was based on realized prices derived from monthly sales (revenues and quantities) reported to the American Gas Association from 1939 through 1944 by sellers of approximately 90 percent of all gas of this specification.

In the 1926–27 revision of the Bureau's comprehensive wholesale (primary market) price index, a series of prices for manufactured gas was developed and introduced for the first time into the calculations. The series was carried back to 1913 as one of the subgroups of the fuel and lighting materials group. In 1928 the series was expanded to include prices for natural and mixed gas and the indexes were revised back to 1926. Through January 1946 the specification for this series was "monthly average realized price per 1,000 cubic feet, manufacturer or distributor to consumer." The average realized price was obtained by dividing the combined monthly revenue from gas sales of reporting gas companies in more than 46 cities by the combined monthly quantity of gas sold. The sales and revenue data included all types of consumers—commercial, industrial and domestic—and, consequently, reflected price levels and movements at different stages of distribution as well as shifts in the relative importance of these types of consumers.

The revised series was incorporated in the calculation of the index for March 1946 in which the February prices for gas were used with the customary lag of 1 month. The revised series was introduced into the index at the same level as the former series, and no revision of previous data was made. The changed specifications are expected to minimize fluctuations in the realized prices resulting from seasonal changes in the volume of consumption and from shifts in the relative importance of industrial, commercial, and residential consumers who purchase gas at widely different rates.

In addition to the composite series for all gas meeting these specifications, composite average prices will be published separately for manufactured and mixed gas and for natural gas. A complete report is in preparation and will shortly be available for distribution.

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Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas, May 1946

BUILDING construction scheduled to be started in urban areas of the United States during May was valued at 362 million dollars. Although this amount was more than two and a half times greater than a year ago, it was 12 percent below April's total. All classes of construction—residential, nonresidential, and addition, alteration and repair work shared in the drop. Nonresidential building valuations showed the greatest proportionate drop, declining 17 percent from 109 million to 90 million dollars; residential valuations declined 9 percent from 237 million to 215 million dollars. Housing scheduled to be started in May 1946 constituted almost 60 percent of all scheduled urban building whereas a year ago housing made up only 35 percent of the total.

Of 45,900 new urban dwelling units scheduled to be started during May about 42,900 units were privately financed as compared to 45,400 scheduled in April.

TABLE 1.—*Permit Valuation* [1] *of Urban Building Construction by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, May 1946*

Class of construction	Valuation (in millions)								
	Total			Non-Federal			Federal		
	May 1946	Percent of change from [2]—		May 1946	Percent of change from [2]—		May 1946	Percent of change from [2]—	
		Apr. 1946	May 1945		Apr. 1946	May 1945		Apr. 1946	May 1945
All construction	$362	−12.1	+168.6	$355	−9.9	+255.5	$7	−60.3	−79.8
New residential	215	−9.3	+356.8	209	−6.8	+384.0	6	−53.6	+55.6
New nonresidential	90	−17.2	+72.8	90	−15.8	+265.0	(3)	−93.4	−99.5
Additions, alterations, and repairs	57	−13.5	+60.1	56	−11.3	+74.9	1	−67.6	−75.9

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.
[2] Percentage change computed before rounding.
[3] Value less than $500,000.

TABLE 2.—*Number of New Dwelling Units and Permit Valuation [1] of Building Construction in all Urban Areas, by Sources of Funds and Type of Dwelling, May 1946*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	May 1946	Percent of change from—		May 1946	Percent of change from—	
		April 1946	May 1945		April 1946	May 1945
All dwellings	45,909	−9.9	+262.9	$213,105	−9.0	+355.5
Privately financed	42,876	−5.6	+282.1	207,163	−6.6	+381.6
1-family	35,645	−8.6	+274.5	180,521	−7.9	+379.2
2-family [2]	2,739	+6.5	+193.3	10,533	−1.5	+233.5
Multifamily [3]	4,492	+16.8	+482.6	16,109	+6.7	+635.9
Federally financed	3,033	−45.4	+112.4	5,942	−52.1	+57.6

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.
[2] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[3] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 5 Months of 1945 and 1946

A comparison of building construction started during the first 5 months of 1946 and during the same period of 1945 is one indication of the impact of the end of the war on building operations. Valuations of all urban building construction started in 1946 through May amounted to 2,184 million dollars, which was over four times the amount recorded for the same period of 1945. This increase is accountable entirely by the tremendous expansion of non-Federal building construction which soared from 353 million to 2,113 million dollars. The most striking increase occurred in residential building valuations which rose six and a half times from 149 million to 999 million dollars. Total Federal building construction declined more than half, largely because of the decline in Federal nonresidential building from 134 million to 19 million dollars. Federal housing, however, gained as the Veterans' Relocation Housing Program brought valuations for the first 5 months of the year to 41 million dollars compared with 15 million dollars for the same period in 1945.

There were 212,750 new urban dwelling units scheduled to be started during the first 5 months of this year—168,000 more than were scheduled for the same period last year. The number of privately financed units was five times greater as it rose from 39,000 to 192,800 units, while the number of Federally financed units increased approximately three and a half times from 5,300 to 20,000 units.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation [1] of Urban Building Construction, by Class of Construction and by Source of Funds, First 5 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Class of construction	Valuation (in millions)								
	Total			Non-Federal			Federal		
	First 5 months of—		Percent of change	First 5 months of—		Percent of change	First 5 months of—		Percent of change
	1946	1945		1946	1945		1946	1945	
All construction	$2,184	$517	+322.4	$2,113	$353	+498.6	$71	$164	−56.7
New residential	999	149	+570.5	958	134	+614.9	41	15	+173.3
New nonresidential	815	220	+270.5	796	86	+825.6	19	134	−85.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs	370	148	+150.0	359	133	+169.9	11	15	−26.7

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.

TABLE 4.—*Number of New Dwelling Units and Permit Valuation [1] of Urban Building Construction, First 5 Months of 1945 and 1946*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	First 5 months of—		Percent of change	First 5 months of—		Percent of change
	1946	1945		1946	1945	
All dwellings	212,754	44,414	+379.0	$971,032	$147,044	+560.4
Privately financed	192,781	39,065	+393.5	932,366	132,858	+601.8
1-family	162,288	31,324	+418.1	815,584	110,032	+641.2
2-family [2]	11,094	3,278	+238.4	44,576	9,785	+355.6
Multifamily [3]	19,399	4,463	+334.7	72,206	13,041	+453.7
Federally financed	19,973	5,349	+273.4	38,666	14,186	+172.6

[1] Includes value of Federal construction contracts awarded.
[2] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[3] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Federal Funds, May 1946

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during April and May 1946 and May 1945 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics is shown in table 5. This table includes all types of construction both inside and outside the corporate limits of cities in continental United States.

The contracts awarded and force-account work started on Federally financed building construction inside the corporate limits of cities in urban areas were valued at $7,057,781 in May 1946, $17,755,671 in April 1946, and $34,964,174 in May 1945.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Federally Financed Construction in Continental United States, by Type of Project, May 1946*

Type of project	Value (in thousands)		
	May 1946 [1]	April 1946 [2]	May 1945 [2]
All types	$85,011	$96,579	$89,223
Airports [3]	140	2,189	8,375
Buildings:			
Residential	10,108	17,712	4,711
Nonresidential	3,307	6,921	54,352
Electrification [4]	1,163	10,615	8,091
Highways, streets, and roads	58,372	31,090	5,723
Reclamation	1,500	8,742	109
River, harbor, and flood control	8,337	11,690	2,009
Water and sewer	569	321	2,275
Miscellaneous	1,515	7,299	3,578

[1] Preliminary; subject to revision. Because of delay in receipt of contract notifications the total shown is probably an understatement of from 20 to 30 percent. The revised figure will be shown next month. The greater part will be for nonresidential building. Water and sewer and miscellaneous projects (most dual or multipurpose projects that cannot be classified separately) will probably also be changed materially but to a lesser degree. Little or no change can be expected in the following: Highways, streets and roads; river, harbor and flood control; and reclamation.

[2] Revised.

[3] Exclusive of hangars and other buildings which are included under building construction.

[4] Includes the value of loan agreements made for Rural Electrification projects.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction in this report cover the entire urban areas of the United States which by Census definition includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Valuation figures, the basis for statements concerning value, are derived from estimates of construction cost made by prospective builders when applying for permits to build and the value of contracts awarded by the Federal Government. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Reports of building permits for cities containing between 80 and 85 percent of the urban population of the country provide the basis for estimating the total number of buildings and dwelling units and the valuation of private urban building construction. Similar data for Federally financed urban building construction are compiled directly from notifications of construction contracts awarded, as furnished by Federal agencies.

Labor Force, May 1946

THE civilian labor force increased by 730,000 persons between April and May 1946 to a total of 57,630,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment rose by 770,000, while the volume of unemployment declined by 40,000 to a level of 2,310,000.

The inflow of veterans into the labor market accounted for practically all of the increase in the civilian labor force between early April and early May. Veterans continue to expand the labor force, despite slackening demobilization, as more and more ex-servicemen take jobs upon completing their vacations after discharge. The number of veterans temporarily outside the labor force has been dropping steadily and is now below the million mark.

The increase in employment between April and May was almost entirely a result of seasonal demands in agriculture. A small net gain of 80,000 in nonfarm employment reflected an increase of 370,000 among men, all veterans, and a decrease of 290,000 among women. The decrease among women was partly seasonal, following the pre-Easter expansion in employment.

Unemployment, after declining by 400,000 during the preceding month, showed virtually no change between April and May. Layoffs of workers in plants affected by the coal strike were offset by hiring in industries which continued to expand employment. It appears that curtailed operations resulting from the coal strike were in many cases reflected in an increase of short-time workers rather than in unemployed workers. The number of persons working less than 35 hours a week in nonagricultural employment went up by a half million during the month.

Half of the 1,890,000 men unemployed in May were veterans.

Total Labor Force in the United States, Classified by Employment Status, Hours Worked, and Sex, April and May 1946

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Item	Estimated number (in thousands) of persons 14 years of age and over [1]					
	Total, both sexes		Male		Female	
	April	May	April	May	April	May
Total labor force [2]	60,740	61,060	44,070	44,310	16,670	16,750
Civilian labor force	56,900	57,630	40,310	40,950	16,590	16,680
Unemployment	2,350	2,310	1,890	1,890	460	420
Employment	54,550	55,320	38,420	39,060	16,130	16,260
Nonagricultural	46,360	46,440	31,590	31,960	14,770	14,480
Worked 35 hours or more	39,000	38,630	27,570	27,690	11,430	10,940
Worked 15-34 hours	4,290	4,800	2,100	2,450	2,190	2,350
Worked 1-14 hours [3]	1,120	1,180	440	480	680	700
With a job but not at work [4]	1,950	1,830	1,480	1,340	470	490
Agricultural	8,190	8,880	6,830	7,100	1,360	1,780
Worked 35 hours or more	6,260	6,640	5,780	5,950	480	690
Worked 15-34 hours	1,590	1,880	860	930	730	950
Worked 1-14 hours [3]	160	180	(*)	110	(*)	(*)
With a job but not at work [4]	180	180	100	110	(*)	(*)

[1] Estimates are subject to sampling variation which may be large in cases where the quantities shown are relatively small. Therefore, the smaller estimates should be used with caution; those under 100,000 are not presented in the table but are replaced with an asterisk (*). All data exclude persons in institutions.

[2] Total labor force consists of the civilian labor force and the armed forces. Estimates of the armed forces during the census week are projected from data on net strength as of the first of the month.

[3] Excludes persons engaged only in incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours); these persons are classified as not in the labor force.

[4] Includes persons who had a job or business, but who did not work during the census week because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor dispute, or because of temporary lay-off with definite instructions to return to work within 30 days of lay-off. Does not include unpaid family workers.

Summary of Employment Reports for May 1946

ONE YEAR after VE-day, employment in nonagricultural establishments had regained the levels prevailing at the end of the European War. Significant gains in construction, trade, finance, and service employment, coupled with lesser gains in transportation and mining, offset to a considerable extent the declines of more than 2 million in manufacturing and almost one-half million in Government over the year.

Total nonagricultural employment increased by more than one-half million between April and May, reflecting, in part, the resumption of the bituminous-coal mining and the settlement of other labor-management disputes. Additional gains in construction, however, accounted for almost half of the April–May rise. Unemployment remained practically unchanged at 2.3 million, after the sharp March–April decline, according to the Bureau of the Census.

Industrial and Business Employment

The number of production workers in manufacturing increased in May to 11,227,000, despite the impact of the coal strike. To a large extent, the increase of 74,000 reflected the resumption of operations after the settlement of labor-management disputes.

While the iron and steel group, with an employment decline of 12,000, was hardest hit by the coal strike; even such industries as textile dyeing and finishing and boots and shoes were among those affected by the freight embargo imposed because of the coal strike.

Employment in the nondurable industries declined by 20,000 between April and May—far less than the usual seasonal drop. The decreases in the apparel and leather groups amounted to only 5,000 as compared with about 60,000 in 1939. Government restrictions on grain are reflected in further decreases in employment in the food industries which normally expand between April and May.

Despite the April–May decline in nondurable goods employment, the number of production workers in these industries was almost 200,000 above VE-day. Of the 11 major nondurable goods groups, 9 employed more workers than a year ago. The textile-mill products group alone employed 120,000 more workers than in May 1945.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	May 1946 [1]	April 1946	March 1946	May 1945
Total estimated employment [2]	37,377	36,887	36,273	37,679
Manufacturing [3]	12,655	12,543	12,010	14,811
Mining	725	505	801	728
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,743	1,517	1,345	798
Transportation and public utilities	3,876	3,921	3,930	3,802
Trade	7,690	7,759	7,617	7,021
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	5,140	5,140	5,076	4,513
Federal, State and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	5,548	5,502	5,494	6,006

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Estimates include all full- and part-time wage and salary workers in nonagricultural establishments who are employed during the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. Proprietors, self-employed persons, domestic servants, and personnel of the armed forces are excluded.

[3] Estimates for manufacturing have been adjusted to levels indicated by final 1942 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Since the estimated numbers of production workers in manufacturing industries have been further adjusted to final 1944 data, subsequent to December 1942, the two sets of estimates are not comparable.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers and Indexes of Production-Worker Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group* [1]

Industry group	Estimated number of production workers (thousands)				Production worker indexes (1939=100)	
	May 1946 [2]	April 1946	March 1946	May 1945	May 1946 [2]	April 1946
All manufacturing	11,227	11,138	10,639	13,090	137.0	136.0
Durable goods	5,591	5,482	4,999	7,639	154.8	151.8
Nondurable goods	5,636	5,656	5,640	5,451	123.0	123.5
Iron and steel and their products	1,336	1,348	1,268	1,683	134.7	135.9
Electrical machinery	490	445	367	704	188.9	171.7
Machinery, except electrical	983	948	880	1,162	186.0	179.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	472	486	459	1,830	297.5	306.4
Automobiles	651	623	447	665	161.9	154.8
Nonferrous metals and their products	337	331	316	420	147.1	144.6
Lumber and timber basic products	576	558	534	519	137.0	132.6
Furniture and finished lumber products	365	366	361	340	111.4	111.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	381	377	367	316	129.6	128.4
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,185	1,183	1,176	1,065	103.6	103.4
Apparel and other finished textile products	1,013	1,018	1,016	917	128.3	128.9
Leather and leather products	356	356	355	312	102.6	102.5
Food	1,011	1,023	1,034	1,007	118.3	119.8
Tobacco manufactures	85	85	82	80	91.2	90.8
Paper and allied products	359	357	353	310	135.3	134.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	375	374	372	320	114.3	114.2
Chemicals and allied products	482	493	494	682	167.4	170.9
Products of petroleum and coal	145	146	145	134	136.9	138.2
Rubber products	221	220	220	201	182.7	182.0
Miscellaneous industries	404	401	393	423	165.0	163.7

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and should not be compared with the manufacturing employment estimates of production workers plus salaried employees appearing in table 1. These data are not comparable with data published in mimeographed releases dated prior to April 1946 or the May 1946 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable data from January 1944 are available upon request.

[2] Preliminary figures.

Public Employment

In a surprise reversal of its post VJ-day downward trend, Federal employment within continental United States rose 14,000 in the month ending May 1, 1946. The agencies mainly responsible for the rise were the Veterans' Administration and the Post Office Department. Continued reductions in force by the War and Navy Departments were not large enough to offset the increases in Veterans' Administration and the postal service.

Outside the continent, employment of the War Department declined 4,000 whereas that of the Navy Department, continued its steadily upward 1946 trend. The Navy Department expansion is occasioned by the construction of new bases in the Pacific.

Although Federal employment in the Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area has crept slowly upward since the first of January 1946, it has been so widely distributed among the almost 60 agencies here that growth in any one (except the Veterans' Administration) is almost imperceptible.

On May 1, Federal employment in all branches within continental United States amounted to 2,397,000 or 559,000 less than at the close of the war.

Increases of 18 cents and 12 cents in the hourly rates of wage board employees of the Navy and War Departments, which became effective March 18 and April 14, affected a total of about 675,000 persons and resulted in higher Federal pay rolls, in spite of decreased volume of

employment, in March, April, and May. (May was the first month in which the full effects of both raises were felt.)

Most of the other Federal workers who are employed on a per annum basis were granted pay increases by legislation passed in May. Employees in the postal service were authorized to receive a total increase of $400 a year retroactive to January 1, 1946. The pay-roll figure for May 1946 includes approximately $10,000,000 to cover the cost of the increase for the first quarter of 1946 for approximately one-third of the postal group. It is expected that the increase for the rest of the group for the first quarter will be paid in June. Other Federal employees on a per annum basis, however, will have to wait until July for their increase, which will add about 15 percent to their present pay.

Source of data.—Data for the Federal executive service are reported through the Civil Service Commission, whereas data for the legislative and judicial services and Government corporations are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Employment on Federal force-account construction is included in the executive branch and also in construction employment (table 5).

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for Regular Federal Services and for Government Corporations in Selected Months*

Year and month	Total	Executive [1]			Legislative	Judicial	Government corporations [2]
		All areas	Continental United States				
			Total	Washington (D.C.) area			
	Employment [3]						
May 1939	935,717	903,549	866,179	122,411	5,315	2,123	24,730
May 1940	1,014,886	980,236	925,418	129,961	5,882	2,480	26,288
May 1941	1,341,098	1,303,037	1,218,663	173,383	6,015	2,505	29,541
May 1942	2,122,660	2,081,715	1,903,488	247,938	6,457	2,650	31,838
May 1943	3,226,607	3,182,814	2,897,871	283,012	6,116	2,722	34,955
May 1944	3,278,453	3,233,367	2,853,412	263,694	6,123	2,676	36,287
May 1945	3,672,391	3,629,328	2,914,635	253,690	6,361	2,617	34,085
March 1946	2,898,455	2,855,223	2,370,116	235,667	6,459	3,053	33,720
April 1946	2,860,350	2,817,396	2,347,272	236,724	6,442	3,070	33,442
May 1946 [4]	2,881,366	2,838,751	2,361,518	237,761	6,518	3,086	33,011
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [5]						
May 1943	$657,264	$649,667	(6)	$57,849	$1,500	$750	$5,347
May 1944	701,614	693,546	$632,890	54,740	1,494	782	5,792
May 1945	701,274	693,471	629,897	54,361	1,635	777	5,391
March 1946 [7]	520,936	512,706	472,312	50,977	1,788	930	5,512
April 1946 [4]	530,614	522,299	480,349	51,504	1,811	939	5,565
May 1946 [4]	536,284	527,631	485,744	51,748	1,819	952	5,882

[1] Includes employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5). Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who were previously working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.

[2] Data are for employees of the Panama Railroad Co., the Federal Reserve banks, and banks of the Farm Credit Administration, who are paid out of operating revenues and not out of Federal appropriations. Data for other Government corporations are included under the executive service.

[3] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month.

[4] Preliminary.

[5] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. For most employees this represents pay for four weeks.

[6] Data not available.

[7] Revised.

TABLE 4.—*Employment and Pay Rolls for the Executive Branch of the Federal Government in Selected Months* [1]

Year and month	All agencies	War agencies [2]			Other agencies [3]		
		Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]	Total	Continental United States	Outside continental United States [4]
	Employment [5]						
May 1939	903,549	194,781	166,334	28,447	708,768	699,845	8,923
May 1940	980,236	250,926	207,541	43,385	729,310	717,877	11,433
May 1941	1,303,037	524,923	453,602	71,321	778,114	765,061	13,053
May 1942	2,081,715	1,232,694	1,068,571	164,123	849,021	834,917	14,104
May 1943	3,182,814	2,372,103	2,102,212	269,891	810,711	795,659	15,052
May 1944	3,233,367	2,410,155	2,045,695	364,460	823,212	807,717	15,495
May 1945	3,629,328	2,736,802	2,038,624	698,178	892,526	876,011	16,515
March 1946	2,855,223	1,805,832	1,343,592	462,240	1,049,391	1,026,524	22,867
April 1946	2,817,396	1,760,505	1,313,751	446,754	1,056,891	1,033,521	23,370
May 1946 [6]	2,838,751	1,746,654	1,293,212	453,442	1,092,097	1,068,306	23,691
	Pay rolls (in thousands) [7]						
May 1943	$649,667	$493,151	(8)	(8)	$156,516	(8)	(8)
May 1944	693,546	528,063	$470,720	$57,343	165,483	$162,170	$3,313
May 1945	693,471	523,589	463,793	59,796	169,882	166,104	3,778
March 1946 [9]	512,706	304,690	269,064	35,626	208,016	203,248	4,768
April 1946 [6]	522,299	312,993	275,960	37,033	209,306	204,389	4,917
May 1946 [6]	527,631	304,005	266,943	37,062	223,626	218,801	4,825

[1] Includes employees on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects (table 5).
[2] Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, and the emergency war agencies.
[3] Beginning July 1945, data include approximately 22,000 clerks at third-class post offices who previously were working on a contract basis. Data exclude substitute rural mail carriers.
[4] Includes Alaska and the Panama Canal Zone.
[5] Figures are as of the first of the calendar month.
[6] Preliminary.
[7] Data are for all pay periods ending within the calendar month. For most employees this represents pay for four weeks.
[8] Data not available.
[9] Revised.

Construction

EMPLOYMENT

Employment on new construction in the United States rose by nearly a quarter of a million in May to reach 1,924,300—more than twice the total in May 1945.

Seasonal acceleration in construction activity caused employment to rise on every type of project except Federal nonresidential building. Expansion on all types of non-Federal building construction, as differentiated from utility, highway work, and the like, amounted to 167,000 workers or three-fifths of the 243,000 employment increase during May.

Housing employment alone (Federal and non-Federal) rose by nearly 105,000 to bring the total to 591,000 workers—35 percent of all site workers in May 1946. By contrast, employment on residential building a year ago represented only 15 percent of the on-site total.

Source of data.—For construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, the Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls at the construction site

directly from the contractors or from the Federal agency sponsoring the project. Force-account employees hired directly by the Federal Government are also included in tables 2 and 3 under Federal executive service.

Estimates of employment on non-Federal construction projects (except State roads) are obtained by converting the value of work started (compiled from reports on building permits issued, priorities granted, and from certain special reports) into monthly expenditures of employment by means of factors which have been developed from special studies and adjusted to current conditions. For State roads projects, data represent estimates of the Public Roads Administration.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Employment and Pay Rolls on Construction in Continental United States, May 1946*

Type of project	Employment (in thousands)			Pay rolls (in thousands)		
	May 1946 [1]	April 1946 [2]	May 1945 [2]	May 1946 [1]	April 1946 [2]	May 1945 [2]
New construction, total [3]	1,924.3	1,681.0	907.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
At the construction site	1,680.6	1,467.0	806.6	(4)	(4)	(4)
Federal projects [5]	[6] 110.3	[6] 93.9	[6] 252.6	[7] $20,479	[7] $17,815	[7] $48,974
Airports	3.2	2.7	7.0	636	554	1,333
Buildings	46.6	39.9	200.3	8,600	7,506	38,220
Residential	21.6	11.9	12.2	4,044	2,083	3,027
Nonresidential [8]	[6] 25.0	[6] 28.0	[6] 188.1	[7] 4,556	[7] 5,423	[7] 35,193
Electrification	4.0	3.2	.5	632	480	95
Reclamation	8.5	7.6	6.6	1,806	1,453	1,627
River, harbor, and flood control	18.3	16.4	13.1	2,929	3,050	2,530
Streets and highways	25.0	19.6	9.8	5,029	3,933	1,852
Water and sewer systems	1.5	1.4	3.2	325	268	577
Miscellaneous	3.2	3.1	12.1	522	571	2,740
Non-Federal projects	1,570.3	1,373.1	554.0	(4)	(4)	(4)
Buildings	1,178.7	1,031.3	305.7	280,531	244,418	71,534
Residential	569.1	473.9	111.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Nonresidential	609.6	557.4	194.2	(4)	(4)	(4)
Farm dwellings and service buildings	132.3	113.1	102.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Public utilities	144.8	130.1	106.9	(4)	(4)	(4)
Streets and highways	48.3	39.6	22.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
State	15.0	11.8	10.0	(4)	(4)	(4)
County and municipal	33.3	27.8	12.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
Miscellaneous	66.2	59.0	16.2	(4)	(4)	(4)
Other [9]	243.7	214.0	101.0	(4)	(4)	(4)
Maintenance of State roads [10]	102.5	98.4	84.2	(4)	(4)	(4)

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Revised.
[3] Data for all construction workers (contract and force-account) engaged on new construction, additions, alterations, and on repair work of the type usually covered by building permits. (Force-account employees are workers hired directly by the owner and utilized as a separate work force to perform construction work of the type usually chargeable to capital account.) The construction figure included in the Bureau's nonagricultural employment series covers only employees of construction contractors and on Federal force-account and excludes force-account workers of State and local governments, public utilities, and private firms.
[4] Data not available.
[5] Includes the following force-account employees, hired directly by the Federal Government, and their pay rolls: May 1946, 16,912, $3,159,636; April 1946, 16,423, $3,033,501; May 1945, 18,684, $3,743,899. These employees are also included under the Federal executive service (table 4); all other workers were employed by contractors and subcontractors.
[6] Includes employment on construction of plants to produce atomic bombs, which, for security reasons, was not previously included in these estimates but was shown in the classification "other", as follows: May 1946, 2,200; April 1946, 2,200; May 1945, 31,000.
[7] Excludes pay-roll data for construction of plants to produce atomic bombs.
[8] Employees and pay rolls for Defense Plant Corporation projects are included, but those for projects financed from RFC loans are excluded. The latter are considered non-Federal projects.
[9] Includes central office force of construction contractors, shop employees of special trades contractors such as bench sheet-metal workers, etc.
[10] Data for other types of maintenance not available.

EARNINGS AND HOURS

Slight increases in average hours and earnings on most types of private construction during April was occasioned, in general, by continued expansion of construction activity.

Hourly and weekly earnings rose most on excavation and foundation work and in the plumbing and heating trade. In the former case, a 2-hour increase in the workweek—greater than on any other type of construction work—brought earnings up, as foundations were laid for much of the unexpectedly large amount of building planned or started in March. The rise shown in average earnings on plumbing and heating reflects expanded activity in the high-wage areas.

Reports on number of employees, weekly pay rolls, and weekly hours worked are received monthly from approximately 11,000 individual contractors. Data published are summaries of all reports received during the months shown and do not necessarily represent reports from identical firms.

TABLE 6—*Average Hours and Earnings on Private Construction Projects, for Selected Types of Work, April 1946* [1]

[Subject to revision]

Type of work	Average hours per week			Average weekly earnings [2]			Average hourly earnings		
	April 1946	March 1946	April 1945	April 1946	March 1946	April 1945	April 1946	March 1946	April 1945
All types of work	38.5	37.8	(3)	$53.99	$52.74	(3)	$1.402	$1.395	(3)
Building construction	38.2	37.5	40.0	54.29	52.87	$54.42	1.423	1.411	$1.361
General contractors	37.8	37.0	39.3	51.73	50.40	51.21	1.368	1.362	1.304
Special building trades [4]	38.6	38.0	40.4	57.16	55.58	56.62	1.482	1.463	1.401
Plumbing and heating	39.2	38.9	41.0	58.25	55.65	55.74	1.487	1.430	1.360
Painting and decorating	37.7	37.8	40.7	56.92	56.31	56.68	1.511	1.492	1.392
Electrical work	40.4	40.3	42.5	66.30	65.25	66.48	1.640	1.619	1.565
Masonry	37.0	36.6	37.5	53.43	51.91	50.91	1.443	1.419	1.359
Plastering and lathing	34.9	35.0	35.0	55.96	56.32	52.33	1.604	1.611	1.494
Carpentry	40.0	39.3	40.2	54.18	54.44	54.60	1.355	1.385	1.359
Roofing and sheet metal	37.5	36.5	39.3	49.61	48.76	52.71	1.325	1.335	1.340
Excavation and foundation	39.0	36.9	38.9	52.41	48.70	47.80	1.345	1.319	1.229
Nonbuilding construction	40.6	39.9	(3)	52.14	51.92	(3)	1.283	1.300	(3)
Highway and streets	40.9	39.4	(3)	51.88	49.88	(3)	1.270	1.265	(3)
Heavy construction	40.6	41.0	(3)	54.39	55.94	(3)	1.339	1.363	(3)
Other	40.5	38.9	(3)	48.24	48.21	(3)	1.192	1.240	(3)

[1] Includes all firms reporting during the month shown.
[2] Hourly earnings when multiplied by weekly hours of work may not exactly equal weekly earnings because of rounding.
[3] Not available prior to February 1946.
[4] Includes types not shown separately.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, April 1946

MONTHLY reports on employment and pay rolls are presented below for more than 150 manufacturing industries and for 27 nonmanufacturing industries including water transportation and class 1 steam railroads. Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*[1]

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	April 1946	March 1946	February 1946	April 1945
All manufacturing [1]	11,153	10,643	9,989	13,356
Durable goods [1]	5,497	5,003	4,427	7,854
Nondurable goods [1]	5,656	5,640	5,562	5,502
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products [1]	1,348	1,268	843	1,707
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	479.8	467.3	169.9	475.4
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	78.0	76.5	71.6	72.5
Malleable-iron castings	22.3	20.1	17.7	24.2
Steel castings	48.5	37.6	25.6	70.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	17.4	16.2	14.6	16.0
Tin cans and other tinware	37.2	33.4	28.9	41.7
Wire drawn from purchased rods	22.1	20.6	15.1	32.0
Wirework	34.5	32.4	28.8	33.9
Cutlery and edge tools	23.6	22.5	21.6	23.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	23.1	22.2	21.5	26.8
Hardware	43.4	39.9	38.3	46.0
Plumbers' supplies	24.3	23.0	22.0	22.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment not elsewhere classified	49.8	47.6	44.0	62.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	43.9	36.1	34.1	54.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	70.3	64.9	57.8	86.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	46.1	43.4	32.2	67.5
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim	8.2	7.7	6.8	10.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	20.7	19.3	14.8	23.6
Forgings, iron and steel	25.9	25.2	22.9	34.4
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	13.3	10.8	7.1	24.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws	27.0	26.1	25.9	42.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	5.0	4.7	2.7	8.4
Firearms	13.0	11.4	10.9	29.8
Electrical machinery [1]	448	367	348	715
Electrical equipment	238.8	186.5	175.3	419.7
Radios and phonographs	71.8	68.2	64.9	114.5
Communication equipment	83.4	68.6	66.4	103.5
Machinery, except electrical [1]	948	880	831	1,184
Machinery and machine-shop products	344.0	313.9	295.0	441.4
Engines and turbines	34.1	24.8	24.5	65.2
Tractors	40.7	40.5	25.2	55.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	30.1	30.4	29.7	42.7
Machine tools	59.5	57.3	58.4	73.6
Machine-tool accessories	47.0	46.8	46.7	63.9
Textile machinery	27.6	27.2	26.6	25.9
Pumps and pumping equipment	51.4	48.9	47.5	68.9
Typewriters	17.3	16.2	15.3	13.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	31.1	30.2	30.1	29.2
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	10.0	9.4	9.6	12.8
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	9.1	8.7	8.4	10.8
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	50.5	43.6	43.9	49.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles [1]	496	464	467	1,934
Locomotives	26.2	5.0	4.2	33.5
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	43.6	42.2	41.6	57.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	123.3	119.8	117.5	619.1
Aircraft engines	26.2	22.1	21.2	203.5
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	217.8	220.4	227.6	853.9
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.0	8.3	8.7	9.6
Automobiles [1]	624	445	415	691
Nonferrous metals and their products [1]	332	317	291	423
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	28.8	30.1	33.7	39.2
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	49.8	48.0	47.0	71.7
Clocks and watches	25.7	25.2	24.7	26.0
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	17.1	16.9	16.5	13.2
Silverware and plated ware	13.5	13.2	12.7	10.9
Lighting equipment	22.6	18.4	17.2	26.3
Aluminum manufactures	42.6	40.3	24.6	70.6
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	23.8	22.0	20.4	31.4
Lumber and timber basic products [1]	558	534	521	510
Sawmills and logging camps	215.1	206.5	202.2	213.7
Planing and plywood mills	67.8	66.2	65.9	68.2

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	April 1946	March 1946	February 1946	April 1945
Durable goods—Continued				
Furniture and finished lumber products [1]	366	361	355	342
Mattresses and bedsprings	18.5	17.8	18.4	17.2
Furniture	156.6	154.3	151.9	149.3
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	24.5	24.6	24.1	26.6
Caskets and other morticians' goods	13.2	13.3	13.0	12.1
Wood preserving	12.1	11.7	11.7	10.0
Wood, turned and shaped	22.8	12.7	21.9	21.0
Stone, clay, and glass products [1]	377	367	356	318
Glass and glassware	102.6	101.9	99.3	87.0
Glass products made from purchased glass	12.2	22.3	11.8	10.8
Cement	25.1	23.7	22.4	16.2
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	55.9	54.3	52.9	40.5
Pottery and related products	44.2	43.6	42.9	38.3
Gypsum	5.2	5.1	4.9	4.0
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	9.9	10.0	10.0	9.3
Lime	8.6	8.5	8.0	7.6
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	15.8	15.2	14.8	13.1
Abrasives	17.9	17.7	16.9	21.4
Asbestos products	17.8	14.6	14.5	19.7
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures [1]	1,183	1,176	1,157	1,074
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	443.4	442.4	437.3	415.9
Cotton smallwares	14.3	14.3	13.9	13.5
Silk and rayon goods	90.4	89.8	89.2	86.3
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	159.1	158.1	153.9	142.1
Hosiery	112.4	111.5	109.8	97.0
Knitted cloth	11.1	11.2	11.1	10.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	31.1	30.6	29.6	27.9
Knitted underwear	34.7	34.9	34.5	33.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	63.3	62.9	62.5	57.6
Carpets and rugs, wool	23.1	22.4	21.6	19.6
Hats, fur-felt	10.9	10.9	10.6	9.1
Jute goods, except felts	3.9	3.9	3.7	3.2
Cordage and twine	14.4	14.4	14.2	14.6
Apparel and other finished textile products [1]	1,018	1,016	993	932
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	191.0	189.9	186.5	198.0
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	52.0	52.3	51.7	48.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's	11.9	11.9	11.6	11.9
Work shirts	13.3	13.6	13.6	14.4
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	217.5	218.5	213.7	206.9
Corsets and allied garments	15.8	16.0	15.7	14.1
Millinery	20.2	21.3	20.8	19.6
Handkerchiefs	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	12.3	12.2	12.1	10.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	10.6	10.5	10.3	10.7
Textile bags	12.6	12.9	14.5	14.6
Leather and leather products [1]	356	355	348	314
Leather	43.8	44.0	44.7	38.8
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	17.4	18.0	17.4	15.9
Boots and shoes	192.9	191.6	187.0	170.6
Leather gloves and mittens	11.3	11.9	11.7	11.7
Trunks and suitcases	14.2	14.0	13.6	12.1
Food [1]	1,023	1,034	1,045	1,014
Slaughtering and meat packing	138.8	147.0	151.2	129.2
Butter	23.7	22.4	21.7	23.4
Condensed and evaporated milk	13.8	13.1	12.8	14.8
Ice cream	17.8	16.4	15.5	15.1
Flour	29.3	30.2	31.3	28.4
Feeds, prepared	21.6	22.5	23.5	21.1
Cereal preparations	10.1	10.9	11.0	9.4
Baking	247.4	254.5	253.2	254.7
Sugar refining, cane	13.5	13.4	12.3	15.3
Sugar, beet	4.6	4.5	4.9	4.0
Confectionery	51.7	52.5	51.4	56.0

See footnote at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Production Workers in Manufacturing Industries*[1]—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of production workers (in thousands)			
	April 1946	March 1946	February 1946	April 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food—Continued				
Beverages, nonalcoholic	23.9	22.6	22.4	26.4
Malt liquors	50.5	51.5	55.5	49.6
Canning and preserving	91.7	84.9	89.6	101.6
Tobacco manufactures[1]	85	82	81	81
Cigarettes	33.0	32.0	31.9	34.4
Cigars	38.8	37.2	36.4	32.9
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	7.1	7.3	7.8	8.6
Paper and allied products[1]	357	353	348	312
Paper and pulp	164.2	162.0	159.8	143.8
Paper goods, other	46.3	46.2	45.5	43.8
Envelopes	10.3	10.1	10.0	9.3
Paper bags	14.2	14.2	14.0	12.6
Paper boxes	84.6	83.9	83.1	75.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries[1]	374	372	367	319
Newspapers and periodicals	128.3	127.0	124.9	108.8
Printing, book and job	154.4	154.2	152.7	131.4
Lithographing	28.2	28.3	27.9	24.0
Bookbinding	30.8	30.4	30.1	27.1
Chemicals and allied products[1]	493	494	491	693
Paints, varnishes, and colors	35.2	34.8	33.8	28.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	51.4	50.8	50.8	50.2
Perfumes and cosmetics	12.4	12.1	12.1	12.2
Soap	14.0	14.2	13.9	13.2
Rayon and allied products	59.0	59.7	59.7	53.1
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	118.0	115.4	114.9	114.7
Explosives and safety fuses	14.4	14.5	15.4	98.5
Compressed and liquefied gases	5.5	5.4	5.2	6.0
Ammunition, small-arms	7.7	8.3	8.4	67.4
Fireworks	2.8	2.5	2.4	22.9
Cottonseed oil	11.9	13.9	15.4	14.5
Fertilizers	29.1	31.4	28.5	27.1
Products of petroleum and coal[1]	146	145	138	134
Petroleum refining	97.4	96.9	96.4	91.8
Coke and byproducts	24.7	24.9	19.7	21.8
Paving materials	2.0	1.8	1.5	1.6
Roofing materials	11.4	10.5	10.8	9.5
Rubber products[1]	220	220	214	205
Rubber tires and inner tubes	104.4	103.7	101.4	93.2
Rubber boots and shoes	17.5	17.3	16.9	16.9
Rubber goods, other	67.2	68.1	66.7	71.3
Miscellaneous industries[1]	401	393	380	424
Instruments (professional and scientific) and fire-control equipment	22.4	22.6	22.3	59.7
Photographic apparatus	23.4	23.5	22.5	27.4
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	21.2	21.1	20.7	23.3
Pianos, organs, and parts	8.5	8.1	7.5	7.5
Games, toys, and dolls	20.1	19.3	18.4	15.6
Buttons	10.2	10.1	10.2	9.6
Fire extinguishers	2.1	2.3	2.3	4.6

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and should not be compared with the manufacturing employment estimates of production workers plus salaried employees appearing in table 6. Data for the major industry groups are not comparable with data published in mimeographed releases dated prior to April 1946 or the May 1946 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable series from January 1944 are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with the totals shown for the major industry groups.

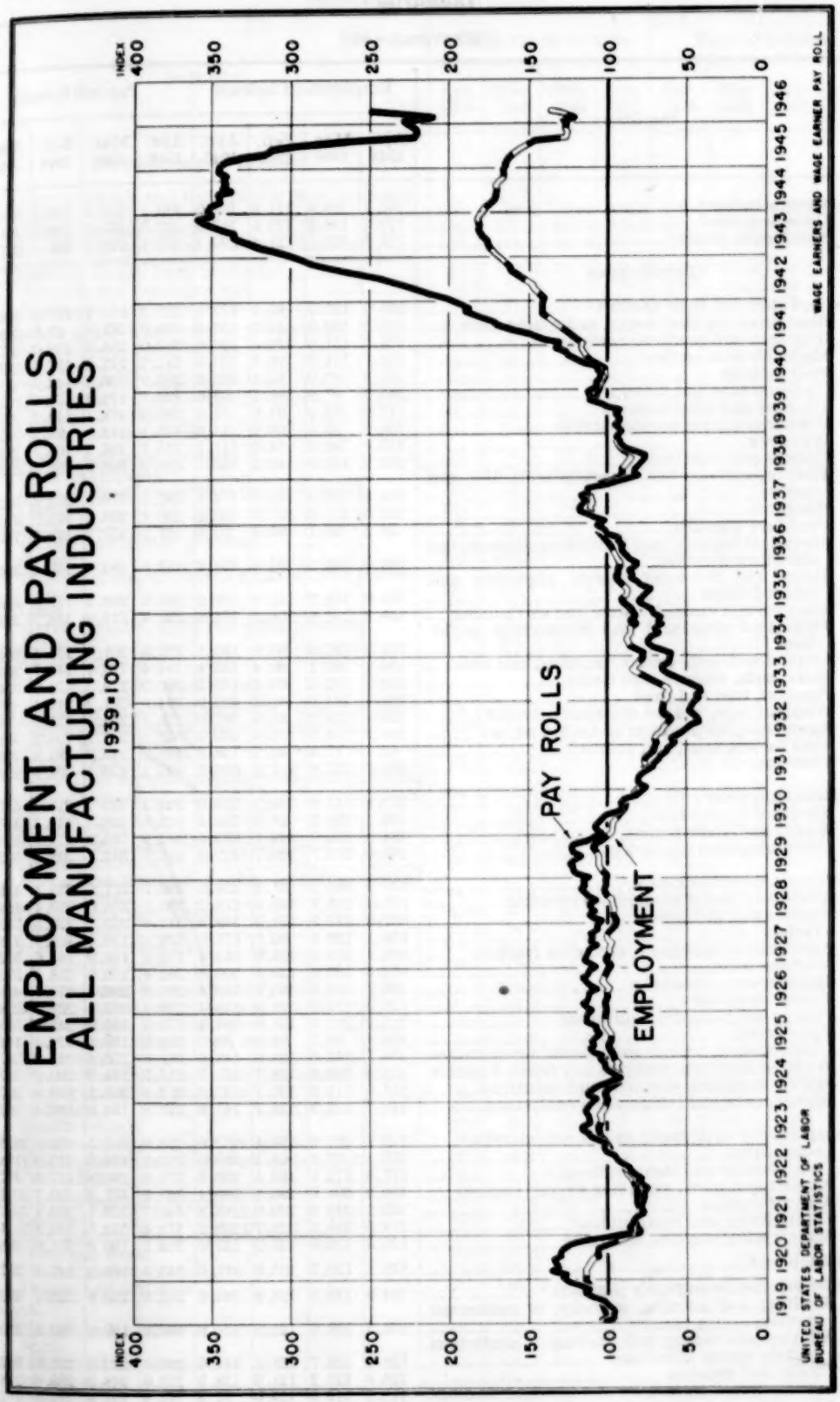
EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS
ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES
1939=100
INDEX
400
350
300
250
200
150
100
50
0
PAY ROLLS
EMPLOYMENT
1919 1920 1921 1922 1923 1924 1925 1926 1927 1928 1929 1930 1931 1932 1933 1934 1935 1936 1937 1938 1939 1940 1941 1942 1943 1944 1945 1946
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
WAGE EARNERS AND WAGE EARNER PAY ROLL

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945
All manufacturing [1]	136.1	129.9	121.9	163.0	249.1	233.1	210.5	333.3
Durable goods [1]	152.2	138.5	122.6	217.5	267.3	237.1	199.6	451.6
Nondurable goods [1]	123.5	123.1	121.4	120.1	231.4	229.2	221.3	217.5
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products [1]	135.9	127.9	85.0	172.1	227.2	211.1	127.2	328.8
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	123.5	120.3	43.7	122.4	186.0	181.5	47.6	228.5
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	133.5	131.0	122.6	124.0	262.0	254.0	230.0	257.7
Malleable-iron castings	123.7	111.2	98.3	134.3	242.2	212.6	187.3	283.5
Steel castings	161.3	125.0	85.1	235.5	285.9	206.5	143.9	451.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	105.2	97.9	88.5	97.0	198.7	192.3	174.1	193.4
Tin cans and other tinware	117.0	105.2	91.0	131.3	206.0	178.1	149.2	227.5
Wire drawn from purchased rods	100.6	93.9	68.9	145.6	152.1	142.9	99.2	252.8
Wirework	113.4	106.7	94.6	111.5	213.7	194.1	165.3	225.6
Cutlery and edge tools	153.2	146.0	140.2	155.1	318.5	306.9	288.2	323.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	150.8	145.0	140.6	174.7	281.5	275.5	262.3	342.7
Hardware	121.6	111.8	107.5	128.9	230.4	209.2	195.7	275.0
Plumbers' supplies	98.5	93.1	89.4	92.5	167.9	157.1	148.5	177.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	108.0	103.2	95.4	134.4	193.6	181.5	159.4	264.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	144.8	119.2	112.5	179.2	248.9	204.2	191.8	348.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	126.5	116.8	104.1	154.8	239.8	215.9	188.7	323.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork [2]	129.8	122.2	90.6	190.1	222.3	201.3	134.4	364.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	106.1	99.1	88.4	133.4	194.4	170.4	144.7	260.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	144.7	135.2	103.4	165.3	240.2	219.3	179.9	334.6
Forgings, iron and steel	168.4	163.9	149.3	223.9	294.9	271.2	242.1	460.8
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy-riveted [2]	159.4	129.3	85.0	287.9	278.1	204.4	135.3	614.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws	159.7	154.0	153.0	250.3	301.4	281.7	268.9	501.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	82.1	77.3	44.5	138.2	166.0	145.0	84.8	294.3
Firearms	260.1	227.6	217.9	596.6	490.1	420.4	399.9	1299.3
Electrical machinery [1]	172.9	141.8	134.2	276.0	289.1	225.1	211.1	517.8
Electrical equipment	132.1	103.2	97.0	232.2	212.6	156.3	145.3	440.8
Radios and phonographs	164.9	156.7	149.1	263.1	302.8	285.9	271.8	520.6
Communication equipment	259.6	213.7	206.7	322.3	452.5	351.2	334.6	552.1
Machinery, except electrical [1]	179.3	166.5	157.2	224.0	300.7	277.9	235.3	426.4
Machinery and machine-shop products	170.0	155.1	145.8	218.2	290.1	258.0	239.4	409.8
Engines and turbines	182.6	132.9	131.3	349.3	311.1	230.2	230.5	732.4
Tractors	130.1	129.4	80.5	177.8	178.4	199.1	104.7	278.4
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	108.1	109.3	106.8	153.4	170.3	169.9	165.6	312.5
Machine tools	162.3	156.4	159.5	200.9	261.4	256.8	258.2	370.9
Machine-tool accessories	186.7	185.9	185.7	253.8	284.2	286.8	276.7	448.7
Textile machinery	126.0	124.2	121.5	118.4	238.4	232.5	222.7	228.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	212.2	202.0	195.9	284.4	374.0	355.0	345.8	593.2
Typewriters	106.4	99.7	94.5	80.1	200.8	189.1	174.4	164.4
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	158.1	153.6	153.0	148.6	281.8	270.4	253.9	287.5
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	133.6	126.4	128.7	171.7	215.7	194.9	200.9	327.0
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	115.6	111.2	106.7	137.3	215.1	205.1	195.8	292.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	143.7	123.9	124.7	141.9	227.8	194.0	168.4	260.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles [1]	312.8	292.6	294.4	1237.5	570.8	512.5	491.5	2615.4
Locomotives	405.1	77.1	64.3	518.0	793.5	154.5	123.6	1194.1
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad [2]	177.8	172.1	169.5	236.3	325.0	293.8	277.5	487.1
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	310.8	301.9	296.2	1560.4	565.5	537.3	520.7	3070.7
Aircraft engines	295.1	248.6	239.0	2288.8	461.7	379.7	369.1	3957.0
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	314.5	318.3	328.7	1233.2	572.6	553.5	530.4	2711.2
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	129.3	119.0	125.2	137.5	219.1	190.0	201.0	268.2
Automobiles [1]	155.1	110.7	103.0	171.6	245.3	166.2	142.4	317.5
Nonferrous metals and their products [1]	144.9	138.4	126.8	184.6	263.8	250.8	228.7	360.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	104.3	108.9	121.9	141.8	180.6	190.8	210.5	269.1
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	128.2	123.7	121.1	184.6	226.4	222.0	221.6	362.3
Clocks and watches	126.8	124.2	121.6	128.3	252.0	248.2	233.6	278.5
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	118.6	116.9	114.0	91.3	227.4	221.9	211.5	162.9
Silverware and plated ware	111.4	109.0	104.5	89.4	220.1	217.5	208.5	165.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945
Durable goods—Continued								
Nonferrous metals and their products—Continued								
Lighting equipment	110.1	89.6	84.1	128.5	187.4	139.0	133.0	236.2
Aluminum manufacturers	180.7	171.1	104.3	300.0	311.5	290.5	172.8	554.0
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	127.1	117.4	108.8	167.5	247.5	218.2	197.1	318.4
Lumber and timber basic products [1]	132.6	127.0	124.0	121.3	248.2	234.5	219.9	228.3
Sawmills and logging camps	74.7	71.7	70.2	74.2	139.8	131.9	123.0	141.2
Planing and plywood mills	93.3	91.2	90.8	93.9	169.7	164.9	160.9	166.5
Furniture and finished lumber products [1]	111.5	109.9	108.1	104.3	214.6	209.0	200.4	197.9
Mattresses and bedsprings	100.8	96.9	100.2	93.8	176.4	169.6	173.1	165.9
Furniture	98.4	97.0	95.4	93.8	189.7	184.3	176.7	177.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	96.5	97.0	95.2	105.1	198.9	199.8	190.1	210.9
Caskets and other morticians' goods	106.3	106.8	104.3	97.3	185.2	183.9	179.2	177.7
Wood preserving	107.2	103.7	103.7	88.6	231.3	225.9	212.5	196.5
Wood, turned and shaped	103.8	103.4	99.5	95.6	202.0	200.9	187.7	177.1
Stone, clay, and glass products [1]	128.4	124.9	121.4	108.2	226.8	217.2	204.6	190.7
Glass and glassware	147.0	146.0	142.3	124.6	249.7	246.7	236.5	206.1
Glass products made from purchased glass	121.9	123.3	117.8	107.8	216.5	220.2	205.2	189.2
Cement	105.4	99.3	94.0	67.9	171.6	154.8	141.6	114.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	98.5	95.6	93.2	71.4	181.3	169.1	158.3	124.1
Pottery and related products	133.6	131.7	129.6	115.8	218.9	217.3	209.5	188.6
Gypsum	105.2	104.0	99.6	81.8	184.8	178.5	172.3	141.9
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	121.9	122.7	122.9	114.0	227.3	232.4	228.5	220.5
Lime	90.6	90.2	84.8	80.7	198.3	190.8	167.7	166.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	85.2	82.3	79.8	70.9	138.7	130.1	122.0	117.5
Abrasives	231.0	228.9	218.9	277.0	384.9	384.9	319.3	483.9
Asbestos products	112.3	91.8	91.1	123.9	231.7	183.8	181.5	259.2
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures [1]	103.4	102.8	101.2	93.9	215.8	212.6	203.7	172.9
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	112.0	111.7	110.4	105.0	246.3	242.3	230.0	201.8
Cotton smallwares	107.4	107.1	104.6	101.6	210.7	210.8	200.0	193.9
Silk and rayon goods	75.4	75.0	74.4	72.0	166.5	163.6	158.3	134.6
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	106.6	105.9	103.1	95.2	238.5	234.2	226.9	186.8
Hosiery	70.7	70.1	69.0	61.0	130.6	129.0	125.3	98.8
Knitted cloth	101.9	102.2	101.2	93.0	208.0	208.5	202.3	165.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	110.7	108.8	105.4	99.1	229.4	226.9	211.0	189.1
Knitted underwear	90.0	90.5	89.4	86.6	182.3	182.7	174.4	165.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	94.7	94.1	93.4	86.1	179.2	180.7	177.8	147.5
Carpets and rugs, wool	90.4	87.7	84.5	76.4	159.9	153.2	146.4	137.4
Hats, fur-felt	75.2	74.6	73.2	62.7	165.1	166.6	153.4	115.9
Jute goods, except felts	108.2	107.9	103.3	88.8	224.6	222.3	209.8	174.9
Cordage and twine	118.7	118.8	117.0	120.7	226.7	225.5	208.1	231.6
Apparel and other finished textile products [1]	128.9	128.6	125.8	118.0	263.5	263.6	240.2	219.7
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	87.4	86.8	85.3	90.6	174.1	170.0	158.1	167.1
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	73.8	74.2	73.4	68.8	152.9	152.7	147.7	128.8
Underwear and neckwear, men's	73.6	73.7	71.6	73.7	165.3	168.9	158.7	154.4
Work shirts	98.7	100.9	100.9	107.2	206.1	200.5	197.7	208.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	80.1	80.4	78.7	76.2	169.6	172.6	153.3	143.6
Corsets and allied garments	84.4	85.1	83.4	75.4	163.4	165.2	156.1	132.2
Millinery	83.0	87.7	85.7	80.7	142.7	169.6	152.6	125.8
Handkerchiefs	47.7	50.8	51.2	51.8	99.0	105.9	105.1	96.0
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	72.5	72.2	71.4	62.7	153.0	149.1	139.8	129.4
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.	99.9	98.9	96.5	100.3	201.0	194.5	174.7	195.4
Textile bags	104.7	107.7	120.7	122.2	177.9	181.2	207.3	212.9
Leather and leather products [1]	102.5	102.4	100.4	90.4	203.9	202.1	194.5	169.3
Leather	92.6	93.2	94.5	82.1	164.8	163.9	165.3	148.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	92.5	95.5	92.6	84.5	165.7	170.5	165.0	150.5
Boots and shoes	88.5	87.9	85.8	78.2	185.3	182.7	174.1	150.4
Leather gloves and mittens	113.4	119.0	117.1	117.2	201.5	216.3	211.8	210.6
Trunks and suitcases	171.0	168.6	163.0	145.2	311.2	304.8	280.6	245.8
Food [1]	119.8	121.0	122.2	118.6	205.4	206.6	211.5	194.8
Slaughtering and meat packing	115.2	122.0	125.5	107.2	180.9	191.1	199.4	167.7
Butter	132.3	124.7	120.7	130.4	225.6	211.3	200.9	210.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	142.3	135.1	132.3	152.7	259.8	236.7	225.8	260.6
Ice cream	113.3	104.4	98.5	96.0	173.4	163.3	152.3	142.2
Flour	118.2	121.8	126.5	114.5	202.5	214.1	241.6	201.1
Feeds, prepared	140.2	146.2	152.6	137.1	246.5	258.5	272.7	242.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Production-Worker Employment and Pay Rolls in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Food—Continued								
Cereal preparations	134.9	146.8	147.3	125.7	232.9	256.4	248.6	232.5
Baking	107.3	110.3	109.7	110.4	179.3	182.8	181.2	170.4
Sugar refining, cane	95.2	94.4	86.8	108.2	146.9	142.6	121.4	182.5
Sugar, beet	44.4	43.1	46.7	38.3	71.4	68.3	74.0	61.6
Confectionery	103.9	105.6	103.4	112.6	192.5	185.7	183.2	191.8
Beverages, nonalcoholic	112.6	106.3	105.5	124.1	158.8	148.1	144.9	164.9
Malt liquors	139.8	142.6	153.9	138.3	194.9	200.2	237.8	206.8
Canning and preserving	68.2	63.2	66.6	75.5	149.4	132.1	136.6	150.0
Tobacco manufactures [1]	90.8	87.9	87.3	86.8	174.6	171.3	165.2	160.8
Cigarettes	120.4	116.6	116.1	125.3	204.6	201.7	194.3	200.2
Cigars	76.3	73.1	71.5	64.6	162.2	156.4	148.9	131.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	77.7	79.9	84.6	93.3	122.9	129.0	133.4	154.6
Paper and allied products [1]	134.5	132.9	131.0	117.7	235.9	233.3	226.2	199.8
Paper and pulp	119.4	117.9	116.3	104.6	210.6	208.1	203.6	182.0
Paper goods, other	123.0	122.7	120.8	116.5	212.0	212.4	204.9	194.0
Envelopes	119.0	116.6	115.1	107.5	200.4	197.7	185.4	170.6
Paper bags	128.4	127.7	126.2	113.4	228.7	230.6	221.3	199.6
Paper boxes	122.3	121.3	120.1	109.5	216.4	212.5	204.0	180.3
Printing, publishing, and allied industries [1]	114.2	113.5	112.1	97.3	178.4	177.2	171.2	138.2
Newspapers and periodicals	108.1	107.0	105.3	91.7	157.8	154.4	148.9	120.7
Printing, book and job	122.2	122.1	120.9	104.0	198.6	200.2	193.9	155.5
Lithographing	108.6	108.9	107.3	92.4	169.5	167.5	161.8	133.1
Bookbinding [2]	119.6	117.8	116.6	105.2	232.6	230.8	221.0	178.9
Chemicals and allied products [1]	170.9	171.4	170.3	240.5	291.2	290.0	284.7	428.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors	125.2	123.6	120.1	102.6	197.1	192.3	185.2	167.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	187.4	185.5	185.5	183.0	301.8	301.0	297.2	277.1
Perfumes and cosmetics	119.4	116.9	116.8	117.6	187.3	185.0	184.9	166.7
Soap	103.5	104.4	102.2	97.5	168.1	169.7	167.2	165.9
Rayon and allied products	122.2	123.7	123.6	109.9	200.5	199.6	197.3	181.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified [2]	169.6	165.9	165.1	164.9	282.7	276.3	272.5	295.6
Explosives and safety fuses [2]	198.5	199.6	211.7	1357.7	305.2	309.8	324.7	2075.7
Compressed and liquefied gases	138.5	136.8	131.3	151.3	227.5	221.3	209.0	274.7
Ammunition, small-arms	180.7	193.6	197.5	1581.2	341.7	376.8	384.0	3149.9
Fireworks	239.6	216.8	203.3	1975.6	585.7	547.6	509.9	5490.6
Cottonseed oil	78.2	91.7	101.4	95.2	168.3	198.4	215.3	202.5
Fertilizers	155.2	167.6	151.7	144.6	362.6	387.0	335.9	351.3
Products of petroleum and coal [1]	138.2	136.7	130.8	126.4	233.5	231.0	221.3	230.3
Petroleum refining	133.7	133.1	132.3	126.1	221.3	217.9	217.4	227.2
Coke and byproducts [2]	113.9	114.7	90.7	100.3	197.2	210.0	162.1	178.9
Paving materials	81.0	73.5	60.3	65.7	157.4	130.9	115.4	124.1
Roofing materials	141.2	130.5	134.4	117.8	259.8	229.1	241.0	222.3
Rubber products [1]	182.0	181.5	177.1	169.6	324.9	302.8	292.1	315.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	192.8	191.6	187.3	172.2	312.9	281.1	271.9	306.0
Rubber boots and shoes	118.4	116.7	113.9	114.3	230.6	217.9	211.5	219.2
Rubber goods, other	129.8	131.5	128.8	137.7	240.6	242.4	233.8	256.1
Miscellaneous industries [1]	163.7	160.5	155.4	173.3	301.6	293.1	278.1	345.2
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	202.5	204.5	201.3	540.1	341.8	346.0	321.7	1070.4
Photographic apparatus	135.6	136.2	130.1	158.7	220.2	215.3	204.5	270.1
Optical instruments and ophthalmic goods	182.6	181.3	178.0	200.5	310.9	309.4	300.8	347.5
Pianos, organs, and parts	111.1	105.8	98.5	98.4	201.8	179.4	159.8	190.3
Games, toys, and dolls [2]	107.4	103.3	98.6	83.7	206.4	203.5	190.8	172.0
Buttons	93.1	92.1	92.7	87.1	189.6	190.1	185.5	176.6
Fire extinguishers	206.6	228.9	227.2	460.0	426.2	471.1	466.9	1065.9

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to levels indicated by the final 1944 data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Indexes for the major industry groups are not comparable with those published in mimeographed releases dated prior to April 1946 or the May 1946 issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable series from January 1944 are available upon request.

[2] Revisions have been made as follows in the indexes for earlier months:

Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 193.5.

Wrought pipe, welded and heavy-riveted.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 281.8.

Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 323.8.

Bookbinding.—November and December 1945 and January 1946 pay-roll indexes to 205.4, 212.1, and 211.1, respectively.

Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 273.4.

Explosives and safety fuses.—January 1946 pay roll index to 360.9.

Coke and byproducts.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 191.7.

Games, toys, and dolls.—January 1946 pay-roll index to 175.5.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Estimated number of employees (in thousands)			
	April 1946	March 1946	February 1946	April 1945
Mining:[1]				
Anthracite	67.4	67.7	67.2	64.1
Bituminous coal	74.5	342	341	305
Metal	51.9	55.7	63.5	68.6
Iron	12.8	13.9	21.9	24.2
Copper	15.3	17.8	17.9	21.7
Lead and zinc	14.4	14.5	14.7	14.5
Gold and silver	7.2	7.2	7.1	5.5
Miscellaneous	2.2	2.3	1.9	2.7
Telephone	519	504	488	404
Telegraph[2]	45.1	46.4	46.9	44.4
Electric light and power	239	236	231	200
Street railways and busses	246	244	243	229
Hotels (year-round)	383	385	383	348
Power laundries	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Cleaning and dyeing	(3)	(3)	(3)	(3)
Class I steam railroads[4]	1,347	1,367	1,367	1,421
Water transportation[5]	144	156	166	155

[1] Data are for production workers only.
[2] Excludes messengers, and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies.
[3] The change in definition from "wage earner" to "production worker" in the power laundries and cleaning and dyeing industries results in the omission of driver-salesmen. This causes a significant difference in the data. New series are being prepared.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945
Mining:								
Anthracite	81.4	81.7	81.1	77.4	165.1	178.5	178.3	135.1
Bituminous coal	20.1	92.2	92.0	82.2	26.0	227.2	222.8	154.3
Metal	58.8	63.1	72.0	77.8	90.5	95.8	96.1	131.2
Iron	63.7	68.8	108.8	120.7	80.4	82.3	86.0	213.0
Copper	64.1	74.9	74.9	90.9	99.8	120.6	121.3	155.5
Lead and zinc	92.5	93.3	94.5	93.1	184.0	181.1	182.2	177.7
Gold and silver	29.0	29.1	28.6	22.3	41.1	39.8	38.5	29.8
Miscellaneous	56.3	57.3	49.0	67.2	88.4	87.8	75.8	113.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic	94.5	88.8	84.3	77.7	191.6	172.6	157.2	151.2
Crude-petroleum production[1]	91.8	90.8	91.0	82.7	144.0	144.4	142.0	131.8
Public utilities:								
Telephone	163.5	158.6	153.7	127.3	246.1	237.0	230.7	163.2
Telegraph	119.8	123.2	124.7	117.9	179.5	177.1	176.9	169.9
Electric light and power	97.7	96.4	94.7	82.0	142.5	140.4	138.3	117.4
Street railways and busses	127.0	126.1	125.7	118.4	191.4	187.2	187.2	174.8
Wholesale trade	106.7	106.6	105.5	94.9	169.8	167.5	165.0	144.4
Retail trade	109.0	106.1	104.3	96.7	167.8	160.9	157.1	132.0
Food	106.3	106.9	106.8	103.6	165.7	163.9	161.7	139.7
General merchandise	125.3	118.6	114.6	111.8	186.2	173.3	165.5	143.5
Apparel	121.2	109.7	104.8	106.9	194.5	170.2	162.5	148.5
Furniture and housefurnishings	75.2	74.1	72.9	61.1	118.3	115.1	112.5	88.7
Automotive	88.7	88.2	86.9	68.5	146.0	142.6	140.5	106.2
Lumber and building materials	106.6	104.7	103.3	90.4	172.1	165.5	161.5	135.6
Hotels (year-round)[3]	118.9	119.3	118.7	108.0	201.1	201.1	199.8	165.6
Power laundries	110.0	109.6	109.0	104.7	183.3	181.3	177.0	162.5
Cleaning and dyeing	130.3	124.3	121.5	119.7	221.0	213.4	199.1	194.0
Class I steam railroads[4]	136.4	138.4	138.4	143.8	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Water transportation[5]	275.3	297.8	316.9	295.5	509.0	550.6	577.3	729.2

[1] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[2] Not available.
[3] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.
[5] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on active deep-sea American-flag steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons and over. Excludes vessels under bareboat charter to or owned by the Army or Navy.

Labor Turn-Over in Manufacturing, Mining, and Public Utilities, April 1946

LABOR turn-over rates in April 1946 closely approximated those in April 1942 when the country was converting to full-scale war production.

The lay-off rate of 13 per 1,000 workers, while exactly the same as in April 1942, is only half as large as it was in 1939; this relatively low lay-off rate, coupled with the relatively high quit rate of 43 per 1,000, is characteristic of a tight labor supply market.

The accession rate continued high in April, 68 per 1,000 employees. While the hiring rate in the nondurable-goods group declined from 63 to 58 per 1,000, in the durable-goods group it remained at approximately the same level as in March, 77 per 1,000. Among the durable-goods groups accession rates of over 100 per 1,000 were reported by the lumber and automobile groups.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Total separation:												
1946	6.8	6.3	6.6	[2] 6.2								
1945	6.2	6.0	6.8	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	17.9	12.0	8.6	7.1	5.9
1943	7.1	7.1	7.7	7.5	6.7	7.1	7.6	8.3	8.1	7.0	6.4	6.6
1939	3.2	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.0	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.5
Quit:												
1946	4.3	3.9	4.2	[2] 4.3								
1945	4.6	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	6.7	5.6	4.7	4.0
1943	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.4	4.8	5.2	5.6	6.3	6.3	5.2	4.5	4.4
1939	.9	.6	.8	.8	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.1	.9	.8	.7
Discharge:												
1946	.5	.5	.4	[2] .4								
1945	.7	.7	.7	.6	.6	.7	.6	.7	.6	.5	.5	.4
1943	.5	.5	.6	.5	.6	.6	.7	.7	.6	.6	.6	.6
1939	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1
Lay-off: [3]												
1946	1.8	1.7	1.8	[2] 1.3								
1945	.6	.7	.7	.8	1.2	1.7	1.5	10.7	4.5	2.3	1.7	1.3
1943	.7	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.5	.7	1.0
1939	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.7
Military and miscellaneous: [4]												
1946	.2	.2	.2	[2] .2								
1945	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2
1943	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	.6	.6
Accession:												
1946	8.5	6.8	7.1	[2] 6.8								
1945	7.0	5.0	4.9	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	7.4	8.6	8.7	6.9
1943	8.3	7.9	8.3	7.4	7.2	8.4	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.2	6.6	5.2
1939	4.1	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.2	5.1	6.2	5.9	4.1	2.8

[1] Month-to-month employment changes as indicated by labor turn-over rates are not precisely comparable to those shown by the Bureau's employment and pay-roll reports, as the former are based on data for the entire month while the latter refer, for the most part, to a 1-week period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turn-over data, beginning in January 1943, refer to all employees, whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to production workers. The turn-over sample is not so extensive as that of the employment and pay-roll survey—proportionately fewer small plants are included; printing and publishing, and certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[4] Miscellaneous separations comprise not more than 0.1 in these figures. In 1939 these data were included with quits.

While the accession rate for men was considerably higher than for women in the durable-goods group, the reverse was true in the nondurable-goods group. In 6 of the 10 major nondurable-goods groups, but in only 1 of the 9 durable, the hiring rate for women outranks that for men. The electrical machinery group, which is the largest employer of women among the durable-goods groups, hired women at the rate of 70 per 1,000, while the rate for men was 68.

Turn-over rates per 100 employees for all manufacturing, for April 1942 and April 1946, are presented below:

	Total separation	*Lay-off and discharge*	*Quit and other*	*Accession*
April 1942	6.1	1.6	4.5	7.1
April 1946	6.2	1.7	4.5	6.8

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,[1] April 1946* [2]

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.
Manufacturing												
Durable	6.5	6.7	4.3	4.0	0.4	0.4	1.5	2.1	0.3	0.2	7.7	7.8
Nondurable	6.0	6.5	4.3	4.4	.3	.4	1.2	1.5	.2	.2	5.8	6.3
Iron and steel and their products	5.3	5.8	3.7	3.6	.4	.4	.9	1.4	.3	.4	6.4	7.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.9	4.7	2.7	2.7	.2	.2	.8	1.4	.2	.4	4.4	6.7
Gray-iron castings	8.1	8.4	6.5	6.2	.8	1.2	.3	.6	.5	.4	9.8	11.4
Malleable-iron castings	7.8	8.5	6.7	7.5	.6	.6	.1	.1	.4	.3	11.0	10.5
Steel castings	6.0	5.8	3.5	3.8	.6	.5	1.7	1.3	.2	.2	4.8	5.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	6.1	6.9	5.4	5.8	.2	.3	.2	.6	.3	.2	8.3	9.9
Tin cans and other tinware	10.1	11.8	6.5	7.4	1.7	1.4	1.7	2.7	.2	.3	11.0	11.1
Wire products	4.1	4.9	2.6	2.3	.3	.1	1.0	2.2	.2	.3	5.8	5.8
Cutlery and edge tools	6.2	5.0	5.2	3.8	.9	1.0	(3)	.1	.1	.1	9.4	8.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	5.4	5.5	4.4	3.9	.6	.7	.2	.6	.2	.3	7.5	7.0
Hardware	7.9	7.5	6.6	5.5	.8	.9	.2	.8	.3	.3	9.0	9.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	7.6	11.0	5.0	5.4	.5	.7	1.7	4.4	.4	.5	9.8	10.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	6.7	6.1	4.9	5.2	.5	.5	1.2	.2	.1	.2	8.7	7.9
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	7.5	7.5	5.6	4.9	.5	.4	1.0	1.8	.4	.4	11.4	10.5
Fabricated structural-metal products	5.0	7.4	3.1	3.9	.4	.5	1.3	2.7	.2	.3	8.0	7.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	6.8	4.7	2.8	2.8	.2	.3	3.5	1.3	.3	.3	5.4	5.8
Forgings, iron and steel	4.0	4.7	2.6	3.0	.3	.2	.7	1.2	.4	.3	7.5	6.5
Electrical machinery	5.9	6.1	3.7	3.8	.4	.5	1.6	1.7	.2	.1	6.9	7.2
Electrical equipment for industrial use	6.8	6.9	4.0	4.1	.4	.6	2.3	2.0	.1	.2	6.5	6.2
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	7.1	6.8	4.3	4.2	.5	.6	2.1	1.9	.2	.1	7.3	8.3
Communication equipment, except radios	2.9	3.5	2.0	2.2	.2	.2	.6	.9	.1	.2	6.4	6.4
Machinery, except electrical	4.7	5.2	3.2	3.0	.4	.4	.9	1.6	.2	.2	6.5	5.6
Engines and turbines	5.2	8.6	3.5	3.0	.3	.4	1.3	5.1	.1	.1	9.6	6.3
Agricultural machinery and tractors	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Machine tools	3.8	3.6	2.1	2.0	.2	.2	1.3	1.3	.2	.1	4.2	4.2
Machine-tool accessories	5.0	5.9	2.6	2.9	.4	.5	1.8	2.4	.2	.1	4.9	5.4
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	4.0	4.5	3.1	3.2	.4	.5	.4	.5	.1	.3	5.5	5.6
General industrial machinery, except pumps	5.2	4.9	3.5	3.0	.5	.4	1.0	1.3	.2	.2	6.7	5.1
Pumps and pumping equipment	4.4	4.7	3.2	3.1	.4	.5	.6	1.0	.2	.1	5.9	6.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *April 1946*[2]—Continued

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.
Manufacturing—Continued												
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	10.7	12.5	3.4	3.6	0.4	0.5	6.7	8.3	0.2	0.1	7.7	8.7
Aircraft	5.7	8.4	2.9	3.5	.3	.4	2.4	4.4	.1	.1	7.4	7.8
Aircraft parts, including engines	8.1	7.6	2.6	2.9	.4	.3	5.0	4.3	.1	.1	7.0	8.3
Shipbuilding and repairs	16.8	16.8	4.1	3.9	.7	.7	11.9	12.1	.1	.1	8.3	9.6
Automobiles [5]	6.1	5.5	4.1	2.5	.4	.3	1.2	2.4	.4	.3	10.4	10.8
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers [5]	6.5	5.0	4.6	2.2	.4	.3	1.1	2.2	.4	.3	11.6	11.9
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	5.5	6.2	3.5	3.0	.3	.3	1.4	2.6	.3	.3	9.1	8.6
Nonferrous metals and their products	5.8	5.8	4.2	4.1	.4	.6	1.0	.9	.2	.2	7.7	7.8
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum and magnesium	2.7	3.0	1.9	1.9	.2	.4	.3	.5	.3	.2	4.1	4.4
Rolling and drawing of copper and copper alloys	4.3	4.5	3.4	3.7	.3	.3	.5	.4	.1	.1	6.4	4.8
Lighting equipment	6.7	6.8	5.8	5.0	.2	.3	.6	1.3	.1	.2	11.9	8.6
Nonferrous-metal foundries, except aluminum and magnesium	6.8	6.6	4.3	4.5	.5	.7	1.6	1.1	.4	.3	7.8	8.4
Lumber and timber basic products	8.7	8.3	7.6	6.7	.4	.4	.6	1.0	.1	.2	10.3	8.2
Sawmills	8.4	8.0	7.3	6.3	.4	.4	.6	1.1	.1	.2	9.9	7.8
Planing and plywood mills	6.1	5.6	5.2	4.4	.4	.4	.3	.6	.2	.2	7.8	5.9
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.7	9.0	7.3	7.1	.7	.7	.5	1.0	.2	.2	8.8	10.4
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	8.8	9.4	7.4	7.4	.7	.7	.5	1.1	.2	.2	9.1	10.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.7	5.5	4.2	4.0	.4	.5	.9	.7	.2	.3	6.7	7.4
Glass and glass products	6.0	5.6	3.6	3.4	.4	.5	1.8	1.2	.2	.5	5.5	7.0
Cement	6.6	5.1	5.4	4.2	.6	.4	.3	.3	.3	.2	9.8	9.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	6.2	7.5	5.5	6.5	.4	.5	.1	.3	.2	.2	8.7	9.7
Pottery and related products	5.0	5.1	4.4	4.2	.3	.5	.1	.2	.2	.2	6.1	6.1
Textile-mill products	5.9	6.4	5.1	5.4	.4	.4	.2	.4	.2	.2	6.3	7.0
Cotton	7.1	7.5	6.3	6.6	.4	.4	.2	.3	.2	.2	7.4	8.0
Silk and rayon goods	6.4	6.8	5.4	5.7	.4	.4	.4	.5	.2	.2	6.7	6.8
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing	5.0	4.9	4.0	3.9	.4	.5	.4	.3	.2	.2	5.0	5.7
Hosiery, full-fashioned	3.8	3.6	3.4	3.2	.2	.2	.1	.2	.1	(3)	4.5	5.1
Hosiery, seamless	3.4	5.7	3.2	5.2	.1	.2	.1	.2	(3)	.1	4.0	6.6
Knitted underwear	6.0	5.8	5.4	5.0	.3	.5	.2	.2	.1	.1	5.3	6.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	3.9	5.2	2.8	3.2	.5	1.1	.3	.6	.3	.3	5.1	5.1
Apparel and other finished textile products	5.8	5.5	4.9	4.7	.2	.2	.6	.5	.1	.1	5.8	6.4
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	.2	.1	.2	.3	.1	.1	5.3	6.2
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	5.7	5.9	5.1	5.0	.1	.1	.5	.7	(3)	.1	5.6	5.5
Leather and leather products [5]	5.2	5.3	4.5	4.6	.2	.3	.3	.3	.2	.1	5.8	6.3
Leather [5]	4.2	4.6	3.2	3.6	.1	.3	.7	.6	.2	.1	4.5	4.8
Boots and shoes [5]	5.5	5.5	4.8	4.8	.3	.3	.2	.2	.2	.2	6.1	6.6
Food and kindred products	8.7	10.3	4.3	5.0	.5	.6	3.6	4.5	.3	.2	6.1	6.5
Meat products	9.6	11.8	3.8	4.8	.5	.7	5.0	6.0	.3	.3	6.8	6.8
Grain-mill products	9.0	7.8	5.8	5.0	.8	.9	2.3	1.8	.1	.1	5.0	5.6
Tobacco manufactures	6.8	6.7	5.7	5.2	.2	.3	.6	.9	.3	.3	6.1	7.5
Paper and allied products	6.0	6.1	5.0	4.9	.4	.5	.4	.5	.2	.2	7.0	7.2
Paper and pulp	5.2	5.4	4.3	4.2	.4	.5	.3	.5	.2	.2	6.4	6.6
Paper boxes	8.5	8.5	7.0	7.0	.5	.6	.7	.5	.3	.4	9.2	8.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected Groups and Industries,*[1] *April 1946*[2]—Continued

Group and industry	Total separation		Quit		Discharge		Lay-off		Military and miscellaneous		Total accession	
	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar
Manufacturing—Continued												
Chemicals and allied products	3.7	4.2	2.4	2.4	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.2	0.2	4.1	4.7
Paints, varnishes, and colors	4.1	4.3	2.6	3.0	.4	.4	1.0	.7	.1	.2	4.4	4.9
Rayon and allied products	3.7	4.5	2.6	2.6	.4	.6	.5	1.1	.2	.2	3.2	3.9
Industrial chemicals, except explosives	3.2	3.5	2.2	2.2	.3	.3	.5	.8	.2	.2	4.3	4.9
Products of petroleum and coal	2.1	2.8	1.2	1.3	.2	.2	.5	1.1	.2	.2	3.4	3.2
Petroleum refining	1.8	2.4	1.0	1.1	.1	.1	.5	1.0	.2	.2	3.2	2.9
Rubber products	4.7	4.8	3.8	3.8	.3	.3	.4	.5	.2	.2	5.3	5.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	3.6	3.7	3.1	3.0	.2	.2	.1	.2	.2	.3	4.0	5.1
Rubber footwear and related products	6.7	5.8	5.7	4.9	.2	.2	.6	.6	.2	.1	7.5	6.4
Miscellaneous rubber industries	6.1	6.4	4.5	4.8	.4	.5	1.0	.9	.2	.2	7.0	7.2
Miscellaneous industries	4.5	4.8	3.3	3.0	.3	.3	.7	1.3	.2	.2	5.7	6.5
Nonmanufacturing												
Metal mining	6.9	7.2	6.0	6.1	.4	.4	.3	.4	.2	.3	8.6	6.7
Iron ore	(4)	2.6	(4)	1.7	(4)	(3)	(4)	.4	(4)	.5	(4)	4.7
Copper ore	8.2	10.8	7.1	9.4	.7	.8	.3	.4	.1	.2	8.5	7.6
Lead and zinc ore	6.8	7.9	6.1	7.1	.4	.5	.1	.1	.2	.2	7.0	6.9
Coal mining:												
Anthracite mining	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.7	.1	(3)	.7	.3	.1	.1	2.1	2.8
Bituminous-coal mining	(4)	5.5	(4)	4.1	(4)	.2	(4)	.9	(4)	.3	(4)	3.4
Public utilities:												
Telephone	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Telegraph	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)

[1] Since January 1943 manufacturing firms reporting labor turn-over have been assigned industry codes on the basis of current products. Most plants in the employment and pay-roll sample, comprising those which were in operation in 1939, are classified according to their major activity at that time, regardless of any subsequent change in major products.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Less than 0.05.
[4] Not available.
[5] Current month data based on incomplete returns.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees) for Men and Women in All Manufacturing and Selected Groups,*[1] *April 1946*[2]

Industry group	Total separation				Quit				Accession			
	Men		Women		Men		Women		Men		Women	
	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.	Apr.	Mar.
All manufacturing	5.9	6.4	6.9	7.2	3.9	3.8	5.2	5.3	7.0	7.2	6.2	6.5
Durable	6.3	6.6	7.2	8.0	4.2	3.9	4.8	4.8	8.0	8.0	6.4	6.4
Nondurable	5.4	6.2	6.7	6.9	3.5	3.7	5.3	5.5	5.5	6.1	6.1	6.5
Iron and steel and their products	5.1	5.3	8.2	9.4	3.7	3.4	5.2	5.2	6.7	7.7	6.6	6.2
Electrical machinery	4.8	4.9	7.4	7.8	2.8	2.8	5.0	5.0	6.8	6.5	7.0	8.0
Machinery, except electrical	4.5	5.1	5.9	6.2	3.1	2.9	4.0	3.9	6.6	5.9	5.4	4.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	10.4	12.5	8.8	13.8	3.5	3.7	3.4	4.0	8.2	9.3	5.4	4.4
Automobiles[3]	5.9	5.2	5.8	7.4	4.0	2.3	4.1	3.8	10.6	10.5	7.7	8.9
Nonferrous metals and their products	5.6	5.7	6.5	5.9	4.1	4.2	4.3	3.9	8.0	8.0	6.7	7.3
Lumber and timber basic products	9.0	8.4	6.7	5.9	7.8	6.8	5.9	5.0	10.6	8.5	6.7	3.2
Furniture and finished lumber products	8.8	9.1	7.7	8.3	7.5	7.2	6.4	6.8	9.3	10.9	6.5	8.4
Stone, clay, and glass products	5.4	5.4	6.5	5.9	4.0	3.8	5.0	4.7	7.0	7.8	5.4	5.6
Textile-mill products	5.6	6.4	6.2	6.3	4.7	5.2	5.6	5.6	6.6	7.3	6.0	6.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	4.1	4.0	6.1	5.9	3.4	3.2	5.2	5.2	4.7	5.8	6.0	6.5
Leather and leather products[3]	4.5	4.7	6.1	6.3	3.7	4.0	5.6	5.6	5.2	5.8	6.5	6.8
Food and kindred products	7.9	10.0	10.9	11.4	3.8	4.4	5.9	7.0	5.8	6.3	7.1	7.3
Tobacco manufactures	5.2	4.7	7.9	7.8	3.8	3.9	6.8	6.0	4.1	6.1	7.1	8.3
Paper and allied products	5.8	5.8	6.9	7.7	4.7	4.5	5.9	6.3	7.0	7.2	6.6	6.7
Chemicals and allied products	3.3	3.6	5.3	6.7	2.1	2.1	3.6	3.6	4.1	4.9	3.9	3.8
Products of petroleum and coal	1.7	2.3	8.0	7.6	1.1	1.1	3.0	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.4	3.7
Rubber products	4.1	4.3	6.4	6.2	3.4	3.4	5.0	4.8	5.1	5.8	5.8	6.1
Miscellaneous industries	3.9	4.1	5.6	6.1	2.7	2.3	4.4	4.3	5.6	6.4	6.0	6.6

[1] These figures are based on a slightly smaller sample than that for all employees, inasmuch as some firms do not report separate data for women.
[2] Preliminary figures.
[3] Current month data based on incomplete returns.

Trends of Earnings and Hours

Summary of Earnings and Hours Data for April 1946

AN ALL-TIME high of $1.06 in gross average hourly earnings for production workers in manufacturing was reached in April 1946, with a further rise to $1.07 indicated for May. The April average is 1 cent above the wartime peak in January 1945, despite the relatively short workweek of 40.6 hours and comparatively few overtime hours at premium rates.

Weekly earnings averaged $42.92 in April, about $4.50 below the peak in January 1945, but considerably higher than at any time since VJ-day. The workweek in April was almost 5 hours below the January 1945 average of 45.4 but approximately the same as at VJ-day. Weekly earnings in the nondurable goods group are $3.50 above the VJ-day level, while in the durable goods group they were at approximately the same level as in August 1945.

Gross average hourly earnings in the nondurable industries have been steadily increasing as a result of wage-rate increases to the 98.8-cent level in April. Preliminary reports indicate that earnings in these industries will reach an average of $1 an hour in May.

While the increases in earnings in the nondurable goods group are striking, even more significant is the average of $1.13 in the durable goods group, only 1 cent below the wartime peak when more than a fourth of the durable goods workers were employed in the relatively high-paying transportation equipment group. In April and May 1946, less than 10 percent of the durable goods workers were employed in this group.

Increases in both hourly and weekly earnings between March and April were evident in all the major durable goods groups and in almost all of the nondurable groups. The shortage of coal and other materials was reflected in shorter workweeks in 17 of the 20 major groups.

Preliminary averages for May are presented below:

	Weekly earnings	*Weekly hours*	*Hourly earnings (in cents)*
All manufacturing	$42.46	39.7	107.1
Durable goods	45.02	39.2	114.8
Nondurable goods	39.94	40.1	99.6

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$42.92	$42.16	$40.58	40.6	40.8	40.5	105.8	103.4	100.2
Durable goods	45.80	44.78	42.57	40.5	40.6	40.0	113.1	110.2	106.4
Nondurable goods	40.11	39.84	39.01	40.6	40.9	40.9	98.8	97.5	95.3
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	47.25	46.74	42.45	39.9	40.0	39.1	118.5	116.8	108.4
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	48.92	48.93	36.75	37.6	37.9	30.4	129.5	129.0	(2)
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	50.15	49.51	47.70	43.2	43.8	43.4	115.7	112.3	110.0
Malleable-iron castings	47.90	47.24	47.17	41.7	41.8	42.9	114.2	112.5	109.8
Steel castings	49.20	46.21	47.15	40.0	38.9	41.6	124.6	119.3	113.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	38.90	40.85	40.93	39.4	41.7	43.0	98.5	97.7	95.2
Tin cans and other tinware	41.92	40.29	38.84	40.4	39.9	41.0	104.3	101.6	94.7
Wirework	47.27	45.61	44.00	41.9	42.1	41.5	112.6	108.4	106.0
Cutlery and edge tools	44.30	44.83	43.84	44.1	44.7	44.2	100.1	99.8	99.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	45.06	46.14	45.57	43.5	45.0	44.8	103.1	102.6	101.8
Hardware	42.54	42.04	40.95	42.0	43.0	42.6	101.3	97.7	96.1
Plumbers' supplies	44.80	44.38	43.57	42.0	42.2	42.2	106.6	105.2	103.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	44.64	44.01	41.81	41.1	41.2	40.8	108.8	107.0	102.6
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	44.52	44.38	44.17	40.3	41.2	41.6	110.6	107.7	106.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	43.81	42.90	41.78	40.9	40.6	40.9	107.1	105.0	102.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork [3]	47.79	46.01	41.43	41.5	40.7	38.1	115.4	112.8	108.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	48.66	45.68	43.73	45.8	44.4	43.0	107.7	104.4	102.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	42.26	41.25	44.10	38.8	38.3	42.5	109.3	107.8	104.3
Forgings, iron and steel	52.74	49.85	48.85	40.2	39.1	39.3	131.1	127.2	124.4
Screw-machine products and wood screws	48.16	47.06	45.22	42.8	42.5	41.7	112.5	109.7	107.5
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	44.06	40.86	41.47	39.7	38.6	41.0	111.3	106.2	101.2
Firearms	49.70	48.93	48.44	41.9	42.6	43.5	118.7	114.9	111.3
Electrical machinery	44.03	41.86	41.49	40.2	40.4	40.3	109.5	103.7	102.9
Electrical equipment	44.19	41.61	40.94	39.7	40.1	40.0	110.4	103.2	102.3
Radios and phonographs	39.48	39.23	39.01	39.4	39.4	39.7	100.1	99.6	98.7
Communication equipment	48.57	46.15	45.41	42.3	42.0	41.8	114.7	108.8	108.1
Machinery, except electrical	48.71	48.69	47.53	41.4	41.6	41.4	117.6	116.9	114.7
Machinery and machine-shop products	49.26	48.29	47.91	42.2	41.7	42.3	116.3	115.4	112.9
Engines and turbines	45.26	46.03	46.66	37.1	38.9	39.2	120.9	117.8	119.0
Tractors	45.81	51.40	46.26	38.7	41.7	38.2	118.3	123.4	121.2
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	44.44	43.86	43.76	40.5	40.5	40.5	109.7	108.4	108.0
Machine tools	51.92	52.92	52.19	42.6	43.6	43.3	122.0	121.4	120.6
Machine-tool accessories	52.43	53.15	51.43	40.8	41.6	41.4	128.6	128.2	124.4
Textile machinery	49.35	48.87	47.87	44.4	44.7	45.7	111.2	109.4	104.8
Typewriters	45.44	45.69	44.42	42.5	43.1	43.6	106.8	105.9	102.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	54.24	53.56	50.49	41.4	41.3	39.3	131.5	130.9	129.2
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	42.65	40.73	41.23	42.7	41.8	40.4	101.0	98.4	99.2
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	50.29	49.84	49.59	44.2	43.9	44.0	114.1	113.8	113.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment [4]	46.12	45.54	39.29	39.1	39.0	34.8	117.8	116.8	112.9
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	52.63	50.46	48.09	39.9	39.9	39.0	131.9	126.4	123.4
Locomotives	56.23	56.92	54.58	39.5	42.7	43.2	142.3	133.3	126.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad [5]	48.45	45.12	42.99	41.1	41.3	40.4	117.3	109.1	106.4
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	51.51	50.53	49.91	41.5	41.0	40.8	124.5	123.1	122.2
Aircraft engines	54.00	52.82	53.43	41.8	41.9	42.1	129.3	125.8	126.8
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	53.86	51.46	47.61	38.5	38.8	37.3	139.4	132.5	127.8
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	46.90	44.20	44.41	41.7	40.9	41.9	112.6	108.1	106.0
Automobiles	49.42	46.80	43.01	38.0	37.3	34.5	130.0	125.6	124.8

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1945	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946
Durable goods—Continued									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Nonferrous metals and their products	$47.55	$47.31	$47.13	42.0	42.4	43.2	113.2	111.6	109.1
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	46.18	46.72	46.06	39.8	41.1	42.1	115.0	113.9	109.4
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	50.91	51.70	52.89	42.2	43.2	45.1	120.5	119.6	117.4
Clocks and watches	41.36	41.58	39.96	41.7	42.2	41.6	99.3	98.5	96.0
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	48.72	48.25	47.14	44.9	45.2	44.6	108.4	106.4	105.7
Silverware and plated ware	52.12	52.61	52.59	46.1	46.5	46.8	113.1	113.2	112.5
Lighting equipment	44.62	41.79	42.58	40.5	40.2	40.9	110.2	104.0	104.2
Aluminum manufacturers	47.21	46.49	45.96	40.9	40.8	42.0	115.4	114.0	109.4
Lumber and timber basic products	35.33	34.88	33.52	41.3	41.1	40.1	85.6	84.8	83.6
Sawmills and logging camps	34.02	33.47	31.91	40.8	40.5	39.4	83.5	82.6	81.0
Planing and plywood mills	39.57	39.34	38.62	43.0	43.0	42.4	92.0	91.4	90.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	38.25	37.80	36.86	42.3	42.6	42.3	90.3	88.8	87.1
Furniture	39.16	38.46	37.46	42.1	42.2	42.1	93.0	91.3	89.1
Caskets and other morticians' goods	40.40	40.08	39.99	42.7	43.3	43.3	94.5	92.2	92.3
Wood preserving	34.45	34.88	32.76	41.3	42.1	40.6	83.5	82.6	80.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	41.73	41.03	39.76	41.6	41.6	41.1	100.4	98.5	96.7
Glass and glassware	42.92	42.84	42.10	40.0	40.1	39.9	108.0	107.0	105.7
Glass products made from purchased glass	36.85	37.08	36.22	41.8	42.1	41.6	86.0	86.1	84.9
Cement	43.72	41.90	40.50	43.1	42.7	42.5	101.5	98.2	95.4
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	38.33	36.83	35.25	40.7	41.6	40.6	93.6	88.0	86.3
Pottery and related products	37.87	38.12	37.61	40.5	40.9	41.0	95.0	94.4	92.7
Gypsum	45.94	45.14	45.44	46.7	46.8	47.5	98.9	96.5	95.8
Lime	42.34	41.15	38.58	48.2	46.7	45.3	88.4	87.3	84.5
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	42.53	41.39	40.22	42.8	42.1	41.3	99.8	98.4	97.1
Abrasives	47.12	47.52	41.20	42.2	42.6	39.0	111.5	111.5	105.6
Asbestos products	46.89	46.61	46.27	45.3	43.3	43.6	105.6	107.7	106.2
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	34.97	34.69	33.76	40.3	40.4	40.5	86.8	85.8	83.3
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	31.79	31.36	30.14	39.8	39.8	40.0	79.9	78.8	75.3
Cotton smallwares	36.45	36.59	35.59	41.6	42.2	42.1	87.6	86.7	84.6
Silk and rayon goods	35.10	34.74	33.74	41.6	41.4	41.5	84.5	83.8	81.2
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	41.81	41.29	41.04	41.4	41.4	41.6	101.0	99.9	98.8
Hosiery	33.77	33.70	33.15	38.4	38.6	38.4	88.0	87.3	86.2
Knitted cloth	38.83	38.53	37.73	43.1	43.8	43.8	89.4	88.0	86.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	34.49	34.50	33.14	39.5	39.9	39.3	86.1	85.6	83.8
Knitted underwear	29.67	29.64	28.67	38.3	39.1	38.9	77.2	75.5	73.3
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	39.80	40.30	39.93	42.1	43.3	43.8	94.3	93.1	91.2
Carpets and rugs, wool	40.54	40.31	40.09	40.6	40.5	40.7	100.2	99.7	98.5
Hats, fur-felt	51.12	51.93	48.75	42.0	42.6	41.2	121.6	121.0	118.1
Jute goods, except felts	37.09	36.82	36.28	43.8	43.8	43.7	84.5	84.1	83.1
Cordage and twine	33.98	33.78	31.70	41.0	41.5	40.4	82.8	81.3	78.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	35.90	36.01	33.70	37.2	37.5	36.5	96.6	96.1	92.2
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	37.50	37.04	34.94	37.7	37.5	36.8	99.3	98.1	94.7
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	28.65	28.55	28.06	37.1	37.2	36.9	77.6	76.7	76.1
Underwear and neckwear, men's	29.95	30.64	29.62	35.9	36.7	37.3	84.1	83.6	79.4
Work shirts	22.42	21.45	21.08	36.4	35.2	35.0	62.0	60.9	60.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	46.29	46.83	42.50	36.5	37.3	35.8	123.4	122.2	116.8
Corsets and allied garments	33.71	33.82	32.58	39.8	39.9	38.7	84.9	84.9	84.3
Millinery	41.95	47.17	43.45	33.1	34.7	33.5	104.4	109.2	107.1
Handkerchiefs	27.18	27.28	26.98	36.4	36.9	37.0	75.0	74.2	73.1
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	28.55	27.93	26.47	36.8	37.0	35.5	76.9	74.8	73.4
Housefurnishings other than curtains, etc.	34.73	33.96	31.22	39.3	39.1	38.3	87.1	86.2	81.1
Textile bags	30.20	29.89	30.12	38.2	38.6	40.0	79.0	77.5	75.4
Leather and leather products	37.58	37.37	36.69	40.5	40.8	40.4	92.8	91.7	90.7
Leather	44.20	43.70	43.49	41.9	42.6	42.6	105.5	102.8	102.2
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	36.03	35.95	35.99	40.4	40.5	40.7	89.9	89.2	89.0
Boots and shoes	36.97	36.67	35.83	40.5	40.6	40.2	90.4	89.6	88.5
Leather gloves and mittens	30.20	30.72	30.56	34.7	36.6	37.3	84.0	84.1	82.4
Trunks and suitcases	38.07	37.81	35.98	40.0	40.6	39.6	95.6	92.5	90.2

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946
Nondurable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Food	$40.75	$40.47	$40.93	42.7	42.9	44.3	95.3	94.3	92.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	42.68	42.56	43.23	39.9	40.6	46.1	107.4	105.1	93.9
Butter	38.15	37.81	37.06	46.5	46.4	45.9	81.5	81.0	80.2
Condensed and evaporated milk	41.78	40.38	39.31	48.0	47.6	47.6	87.4	84.9	82.5
Ice cream	41.90	42.87	42.24	46.9	47.6	47.0	86.6	87.4	86.7
Flour	43.63	44.56	48.33	46.5	47.7	50.7	93.3	93.6	95.5
Cereal preparations	43.66	44.17	42.92	41.8	42.4	41.4	104.5	104.2	103.7
Baking	41.74	41.49	41.15	45.0	45.1	45.1	93.0	92.0	91.3
Sugar refining, cane	36.88	36.10	33.45	40.1	40.2	37.6	91.9	89.9	89.0
Sugar, beet	39.44	38.97	38.94	39.4	39.1	38.8	100.1	99.6	100.3
Confectionery	34.00	32.41	32.65	40.7	39.8	40.0	81.7	79.8	79.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic	37.49	36.75	36.24	42.9	42.7	42.0	85.6	84.6	84.9
Malt liquors	48.98	49.50	54.55	40.2	40.5	44.3	121.8	122.0	123.2
Canning and preserving	35.51	33.71	33.18	40.1	39.6	39.5	88.9	85.9	84.4
Tobacco manufactures	32.48	32.95	31.98	39.2	39.7	38.5	83.0	83.0	83.2
Cigarettes	36.06	36.71	35.50	40.4	40.8	38.7	89.2	90.1	91.7
Cigars	30.51	30.62	30.01	38.7	39.3	38.5	78.5	78.0	77.6
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	27.56	28.18	27.49	35.9	37.3	37.1	76.8	75.5	74.1
Paper and allied products	42.02	41.96	41.15	43.5	43.9	43.9	96.5	95.6	93.7
Paper and pulp	44.75	44.80	44.34	44.5	44.7	45.2	100.8	100.1	98.2
Envelopes	40.47	40.52	38.47	43.1	43.7	43.0	93.1	92.7	89.5
Paper bags	35.59	36.06	35.26	40.7	41.3	41.0	87.8	87.7	86.3
Paper boxes	39.07	38.67	37.34	42.8	43.0	42.7	91.4	90.0	87.6
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	50.94	50.97	49.80	41.0	41.2	40.8	124.4	123.6	122.1
Newspapers and periodicals	55.45	54.99	53.67	38.4	38.6	38.4	142.3	140.3	137.9
Printing, book and job	49.35	49.51	48.30	42.2	42.7	42.0	116.3	116.7	115.5
Lithographing	51.94	51.03	50.09	43.5	43.0	42.4	119.5	118.8	118.2
Chemicals and allied products	43.28	42.94	42.53	41.4	41.6	41.7	104.4	103.3	102.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors	46.56	45.89	45.49	43.4	43.1	43.4	107.5	106.6	105.0
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	37.83	38.29	37.63	40.7	40.9	40.9	93.1	93.8	92.2
Soap	46.39	46.43	46.76	41.7	41.6	43.3	111.4	111.5	108.0
Rayon and allied products	40.18	39.53	39.13	39.3	38.9	39.1	102.2	101.6	100.1
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified [2]	50.58	50.25	49.91	41.5	41.5	41.7	122.0	121.1	119.8
Explosives and safety fuses	47.24	47.73	47.18	39.6	40.2	40.1	119.2	118.8	117.7
Ammunition, small-arms	42.76	44.01	43.97	39.1	40.2	42.4	109.4	109.6	103.6
Cottonseed oil	29.53	29.73	29.26	48.6	49.7	49.4	60.7	59.8	59.3
Fertilizers	31.87	31.93	30.68	43.6	44.4	42.9	73.1	71.9	71.6
Products of petroleum and coal	53.55	53.30	53.45	40.2	40.8	41.6	133.1	130.7	128.6
Petroleum refining	56.70	55.86	56.25	39.9	40.3	40.8	141.9	138.3	136.9
Coke and byproducts [3]	45.26	47.93	46.68	39.3	41.0	43.2	115.1	117.0	108.3
Roofing materials	47.04	44.49	45.86	45.3	44.3	45.7	103.9	100.5	100.4
Rubber products	49.68	46.46	46.05	40.3	40.8	40.8	123.4	113.8	112.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	54.60	49.72	49.21	38.5	38.7	38.7	142.2	127.5	126.6
Rubber boots and shoes	43.75	41.94	41.69	42.1	44.0	43.9	103.9	95.3	95.1
Rubber goods, other	43.45	43.27	42.65	42.6	43.3	43.2	102.1	100.0	98.8
Miscellaneous industries	42.39	42.05	41.17	41.8	42.1	41.8	101.5	99.9	98.5
Instruments (professional and scientific), and fire-control equipment	48.51	48.65	46.13	40.4	40.7	40.2	119.8	118.4	113.2
Pianos, organs, and parts	44.67	41.47	39.66	42.1	41.6	40.3	106.1	100.2	98.7

See footnotes at end of table.

Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946	Apr. 1946	Mar. 1946	Feb. 1946
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Mining:									
Anthracite	$52.08	$56.10	$56.84	38.6	41.0	41.2	135.2	137.6	137.6
Bituminous coal	30.76	58.30	57.37	27.0	45.9	45.5	123.9	127.4	126.5
Metal	43.75	43.06	37.90	40.2	40.2	35.8	108.9	107.1	105.9
Iron [2]	33.53	31.77	21.00	30.1	29.3	20.5	111.3	108.3	102.4
Copper [2]	44.05	45.65	45.90	42.7	43.8	44.1	103.1	104.2	104.0
Lead and zinc [2]	50.24	48.95	48.74	44.9	44.6	44.3	111.8	109.6	110.0
Quarrying and nonmetallic	44.08	41.91	40.25	45.9	45.1	44.1	95.5	93.0	91.3
Crude-petroleum production	52.22	53.20	52.45	40.6	40.8	40.7	129.1	130.8	128.4
Public utilities:									
Telephone	44.09	43.76	44.37	39.7	40.2	40.7	113.2	110.5	109.5
Telegraph [3]	38.79	37.22	36.73	43.8	43.7	44.1	88.6	85.1	83.3
Electric light and power	50.82	50.75	50.63	41.6	41.6	42.4	121.9	122.2	119.5
Street railways and busses	50.71	49.91	50.29	49.0	49.4	49.2	102.5	100.1	101.1
Trade:									
Wholesale	47.13	46.31	46.07	41.8	41.9	41.9	112.1	110.1	109.5
Retail	31.40	31.12	30.77	40.3	40.5	40.5	85.4	84.1	83.5
Food	37.53	36.76	36.36	40.7	40.7	40.5	87.7	86.7	85.8
General merchandise	26.14	25.75	25.37	36.8	36.8	36.8	70.5	68.9	68.2
Apparel	33.47	32.40	32.00	36.9	37.1	37.6	90.8	87.9	87.1
Furniture and housefurnishings	43.20	42.65	42.32	43.3	43.3	43.4	101.0	99.6	99.7
Automotive	46.58	45.90	45.87	46.2	46.3	46.1	102.2	101.0	100.2
Lumber and building materials	41.73	40.92	40.73	43.7	43.1	42.9	97.0	96.1	96.1
Hotels (year-round) [7]	26.64	26.57	26.43	44.2	44.1	43.7	60.0	60.0	60.2
Power laundries	30.05	29.81	29.22	43.5	43.5	43.3	68.8	68.4	67.5
Cleaning and dyeing	36.25	34.77	33.33	44.0	43.4	42.5	83.3	81.5	79.3
Brokerage	67.75	68.24	72.52	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)
Insurance	51.11	51.09	50.45	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(8)

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings for individual industries are based on a slightly smaller sample than are weekly earnings. For manufacturing, mining, power laundries, and cleaning and dyeing industries, the data relate to production workers only. For the remaining industries the data relate to all employees except high-paid executives and officials. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

[2] The revised average of 121.7 cents for those workers who were employed in February in blast furnaces, steel works and rolling mills is not shown in the table, to prevent misinterpretation.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.—January 1946 to 40.5 hours.
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.—January 1946 to $44.50 and 107.2 cents.
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.—January 1946 to $50.05 and 42.4 hours.
Coke and byproducts.—January 1946 to $45.45.

[4] New series beginning January 1946; not comparable with previously published data. New January data are $35.20 and 107.6 cents. Comparable December 1945 data are $45.47 and 110.8 cents.

[5] Comparable data from January 1939 are available upon request.

[6] Excludes messengers and approximately 6,000 employees of general and divisional headquarters, and of cable companies.

[7] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

[8] Not available.

Trend of Factory Earnings, 1939 to April 1946

THE published average earnings of factory workers are summarized in the accompanying table for selected months from January 1939 to April 1946. The earnings shown in this table are on a gross basis (i. e., before deductions for social security, income and victory taxes, bond purchases, etc.).

Weekly earnings in all manufacturing averaged $42.92 in April 1946—85.1 percent above the average in January 1939, 61.1 percent above January 1941, and 10.4 percent above October 1942. Weekly pay for April 1946 dropped 8.9 percent below that of April 1945, as the result of reductions in both hourly pay and working hours. However, the average earnings of factory workers were still higher than

before the war, as a result of such wartime factors as changing composition of the labor force within plants and shifts in the distribution of workers among plants and among industries, as well as wage-rate increases.

Gross hourly earnings in all manufacturing averaged 105.8 cents in April 1946—67.4 percent above the average in January 1939, 54.9 percent above January 1941, and 18.5 percent above October 1942.

Straight-time average hourly earnings, as shown in columns 7 to 9, are weighted by man-hours of employment in the major divisions of manufacturing for January 1941. These earnings are estimated to exclude premium pay at time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. However, the effect of extra pay on supplementary shifts and on holidays is included. For all manufacturing, the straight-time average in April 1946 was 102.7 cents per hour; this was 60.2 percent higher than in January 1939, 54.7 percent above January 1941, and 27.3 percent above October 1942.

Earnings of Factory Workers in Selected Months, 1939 to April 1946

Month and year	Average weekly earnings			Average hourly earnings			Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings [1] weighted by January 1941 employment		
	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	All manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1939: January	$23.19	$25.33	$21.57	$0.632	$0.696	$0.583	$0.641	$0.702	$0.575
1940: January	24.56	27.39	22.01	.655	.717	.598	.652	.708	.589
1941: January	26.64	30.48	22.75	.683	.749	.610	.664	.722	.601
1942: January	33.40	38.98	26.97	.801	.890	.688	.751	.826	.668
July	36.43	42.51	28.94	.856	.949	.725	.783	.863	.696
October	38.89	45.31	30.66	.893	.990	.751	.807	.888	.718
1943: January	40.62	46.68	32.10	.919	1.017	.768	.819	.905	.726
April	42.48	48.67	33.58	.944	1.040	.790	.833	.916	.742
July	42.76	48.76	34.01	.963	1.060	.806	.850	.939	.753
October	44.86	51.26	35.18	.988	1.086	.824	.863	.950	.766
December	44.58	50.50	35.61	.995	1.093	.832	.873	.962	.775
1944: January	45.29	51.21	36.03	1.002	1.099	.838	.877	.965	.780
April	45.55	51.67	36.16	1.013	1.110	.850	.889	.976	.794
July	45.43	51.07	37.05	1.018	1.116	.862	.901	.993	.802
October	46.94	53.18	37.97	1.031	1.129	.878	.908	.991	.817
December	47.44	53.68	38.39	1.040	1.140	.883	.912	.997	.820
1945: January	47.50	53.54	38.66	1.046	1.144	.891	.920	1.005	.827
April	47.12	52.90	38.80	1.044	1.138	.899	.925	1.007	.836
July	45.12	50.60	38.59	1.032	1.126	.902	.933	1.017	.842
October	40.97	44.23	37.76	.985	1.063	.909	.942	1.014	.863
December	41.21	44.08	38.52	.994	1.066	.927	.957	1.028	.880
1946: January	41.15	43.67	38.75	1.004	1.070	.941	.970	1.037	.895
February	40.58	42.57	39.01	1.002	1.064	.953	.982	1.047	.911
March [2]	42.16	44.78	39.84	1.034	1.102	.975	1.007	1.076	.932
April [2]	42.92	45.80	40.11	1.058	1.131	.988	1.027	1.110	.946

[1] The method of estimating straight-time average hourly earnings makes no allowance for special rates of pay for work done on major holidays. Estimates for the months of January, July, September, and November, therefore, may not be precisely comparable with those for the other months in which important holidays are seldom included in the pay periods for which manufacturing establishments report to the Bureau. This characteristic of the data does not appear to invalidate the comparability of the figures for January 1941 with those for the preceding and following months.

[2] Preliminary.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

July 1946

Education and Training

Annual report of the American Labor Education Service, Inc., for the year 1945. New York, 1946. 12 pp.; processed.

Points out that the program of the American Labor Education Service is now related to broad community needs as well as to particular economic problems which labor is facing, such as a job for everybody, cutbacks in wages, and new collective-bargaining techniques. Emphasis has shifted from "classes as such to educational work that is functional in character and grows out of the everyday activities of the labor movement."

The program of the Retraining and Reemployment Administration, [*U. S. Department of Labor*]. By G. B. Erskine, Administrator. (In Occupations, the Vocational Guidance Journal, New York, May 1946, pp. 498–500. 50 cents.)

Statement on the "human side of reconversion."

Some sociological aspects of vocational guidance of Negro children. By M. N. E. Young. (In Journal of Negro Education, Vol. XV, No. 1, Washington, 1946, pp. 21–30. $1.)

The vocational advisement of youth. By C. A. Prosser. Fort Collins, Colorado A & M College, 1945. 38 pp.; mimeographed.

Employment

Economic factors influencing railroad employment. By Maurice Parmelee. Chicago, U. S. Railroad Retirement Board, Office of Director of Research, 1946. 152 pp.; mimeographed.

Analysis of some of the factors which influence production and determine volume of employment in general and on the railroads. Includes statistical data on demand and purchasing power, capital formation and investment, prices and cost of living, labor cost of production, and other subjects.

Employment and pay rolls of State and local governments, 1929–39. Washington U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 64 pp.; processed. Free.

Forestry and jobs. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, 1945. 8 pp. (AIS No. 34.) Free.

Foreign trade and postwar jobs. (In World Economics, Washington, October–December 1945, pp. 13–48.)

Symposium of four papers, with a summary statement on the main points of agreement by the different authors.

Full employment in practice. By John H. G. Pierson. New York, New York University, Institute on Postwar Reconstruction, 1946. 26 pp.

Originally presented as an address before a special seminar on "full employment in a free economy" conducted by the Institute on Postwar Reconstruction.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries.

699502—46——11

Jobs and markets: How to prevent inflation and depression in the transition. By Melvin G. de Chazeau and others. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. 143 pp. $1.60.

This report by the research staff of the Committee for Economic Development is the last of a series on problems of transition from war to peace. It presents the views and recommendations of the staff, including those on wage policy as related to productivity.

Handicapped Workers

Annual report of the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Federal Security Agency, for the fiscal year 1945. Washington, 1945. 27 pp. (Section 3 of annual report of Federal Security Agency.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Report on operation of the Federal-State system for rehabilitating the civilian handicapped into employment. Occupational distribution of about 42,000 placements, as a culmination of the rehabilitation process, is shown in an appendix table.

Job placement of the physically handicapped. By Clark D. Bridges. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. 329 pp., bibliography, forms, illus. $3.50.

The principal theme of this book is that physical disabilities need not be work handicaps. The author, a safety and industrial engineer, analyzes specific disabilities (including industrial diseases) and their effect on working ability, and points out safeguards necessary for suitable placement of handicapped workers.

"No help wanted" is expression of handicapped workers' spirit. By L. A. Fitzgerald. (In Journal of American Insurance, Chicago, March 1946; also reprinted. 4 pp.)

A discussion of intelligent means of getting handicapped workers ready for jobs and back to work.

Placing the handicapped in jobs. By Virgil Smirnow. (In Occupations, New York, May 1946, pp. 476–484. 50 cents.)

Description of the U. S. Employment Service's program for selective placement of the handicapped.

Report on a community rehabilitation service and center (functional plan). New York, Baruch Committee on Physical Medicine, [1946]. 24 pp., charts.

Basic guide for a rehabilitation service and center for the training and care of the disabled. Experience in the armed services and best civilian practice have been incorporated.

They are employable. By Frederick I. Daniels. (In Better Times, Welfare Council of New York City, New York, April 5, 1946, pp. 7, 8; illus. 10 cents.)

Outlines the training program for blind women and girls carried on by the Brooklyn Bureau of Social Service. Industrial-training workshops simulate factory conditions and give confidence to trainees. A staff production engineer is studying requirements of the postwar period, particularly as affected by the reassembling of single operations into one job.

First annual report, July 1944–June 1945, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation Service for the Blind under the Oregon State Commission for the Blind and the Prevention of Blindness. Portland, [1945?]. 20 pp.; mimeographed.

Housing

Annual report of the chairman of the National Committee on Housing, Inc. New York, National Committee on Housing, Inc., 1946. 12 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviews the action taken to promote house construction in the year ended April 8, 1946, and points to the need for continued efforts.

A decent home an American right: 5th, 6th, and 7th consolidated report of Housing Authority of City of Los Angeles. Los Angeles, [1946?]. 73 pp., maps, charts, illus.

Deals with housing conditions in Los Angeles and makes recommendations for betterment.

Bibliography on public housing and related subjects for the use of teachers and students. Compiled by Elizabeth L. Carey. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, Federal Public Housing Authority, December 1945. 11 pp.; mimeographed.

Annual report of building permits issued in Canada, 1945. Ottawa, Department of Trade and Commerce, Bureau of Statistics, 1946. 44 pp., chart; processed. 25 cents.

Building and planning. By G. D. H. Cole. London, Cassell & Co., Ltd., 1945. 287 pp., charts. 10s. 6d. net.

Examines the postwar building needs of Great Britain in relation to town and country planning and national planning for the location of industry, and the problem of developing the building industry to the point necessary for carrying out an adequate construction program. Particular attention is given to the matter of labor supply for the building industry, including a "tentative estimate" of the number of workers required for specified types of construction over a 12-year period.

Augmentation of skilled labour in the building industry, [Great Britain]. Address by George Isaacs, Minister of Labour and National Service. London, Amalgamated Union of Building Trades Workers, [1945?]. 11 pp.

Describes government plans for recruiting and training building trades workers in such fashion as to double the size of the labor force for the building industry within a few years.

The provision of houses for owner-occupation in Scotland. By Scottish Housing Advisory Committee. Edinburgh, Department of Health for Scotland, [1946]. 73 pp. (Cmd. 6741.) 1s. 3d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, Edinburgh.

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Injuries and accident causes in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, 1943. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 58 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 855; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, November and December 1945, with additional data.) 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Catalogue of American standards. New York, American Standards Association, 1946. 23 pp.

Standards pertaining to safe industrial practices and safe work clothing are included. War standards are also indicated.

Engineered color for safety. By E. D. Peck. (In Safety Engineering, New York, December 1945, pp. 14–16 et seq.; illus. 25 cents.)

Results of a survey of 46 plants, describing the functional use of color schemes to eliminate prime sources of industrial accidents.

Organizing and training the industrial fire brigade. By Fred Shepperd. Arlington, Mass., International Association of Fire Chiefs, Educational Committee, [1945?]. 20 pp.

The safe handling of hammers. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1946. (Industrial safety charts, series P.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Industrial Hygiene

Control of health hazards from rubber cementing operations in shoe and slipper manufacture. By Samuel Moskowitz and William J. Burke. (In Monthly Review of Division of Industrial Hygiene and Safety Standards, New York State Department of Labor, New York, January 15, 1946, pp. 1–4, diagrams, illus.; February 1, 1946, pp. 1–3.)

Health hazards in the use of pneumatic tools. By Ludwig Teleky, M.D. (In Monthly Review of Division of Industrial Hygiene and Safety Standards, New York State Department of Labor, New York, February 15, 1946, pp. 1–4; illus.)

Mercury vapor exposure in the mercury thermometer industry. By Harry Heimann, M.D., and K. Leo Dennis. (In Monthly Review of Division of Industrial Hygiene and Safety Standards, New York State Department of Labor, New York, March 1, 1946, pp. 1–3.)

Transactions, medical and engineering section, tenth annual meeting of Industrial Hygiene Foundation, Pittsburgh, Pa., November 14–15, 1945. Pittsburgh, Industrial Hygiene Foundation, 1946. 52 pp., charts. (Transactions series, Bull. No. 6.)

Papers reproduced include one on industrial health department functions and relationships, one on sickness absenteeism among employees of a sample of the Foundation's member companies, and several on silicosis.

International Labor Conditions

Living conditions of the indigenous populations in American countries. By Victor Gabriel Garcés. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. 27 pp. 25 cents. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

Report of the [International Labor] Conference Delegation on Constitutional Questions on the work of its first session, January 21–February 15, 1946. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1946. 144 pp. $1. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.

The 27th session of the International Labor Conference, Paris, October–November 1945. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, January–February 1946, pp. 5–38. Reprints of article are available at 10 cents each. Distributed in United States by Washington branch of I. L. O.)

World industrial committees. By Ervin Hexner. (In Southern Economic Journal, Chapel Hill, N. C., April 1946, pp. 348–356. $1.)

Discussion of International Labor Organization policy in the formation of industry committees, such as those in coal mining, inland transport, and iron and steel production. The author considers, in particular, some of the political and economic problems attendant upon what he describes as this recent development in international management-labor relations.

Legislation and Court Decisions

State labor legislation in 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1823; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1946.) Free.

Labor code, State of California. Sacramento, Bureau of Printing, 1945. 218 pp. 75 cents, plus tax.

Labor laws [of Michigan]. Lansing, Department of Labor and Industry, July 1945. 108 pp.

Reference list of small-loan legislation. Compiled by F. B. Hubachek and Roger S. Barrett. Washington, American Association of Small Loan Companies, 1946. 16 pp.

Court decisions on teacher tenure reported in 1945. Washington, National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, 1946. 24 pp. 25 cents.

Medical Care and Health Insurance

Prepayment medical care organizations. By Margaret C. Klem. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1945. 148 pp. 3d ed. (Bureau memorandum No. 55.) 25 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Description of 235 individual organizations in the United States and 16 in Canada, based on data for the early part of 1945, covering type and sponsorship, area served, eligibility for enrollment, coverage, personnel, hospital facilities, medical services provided, cash disability and death benefits, workmen's compensation cases, charges, and company contributions. A summary of findings, together with statistical tables, is presented for the United States, with comparisons for 1943.

Health and medical care in Alabama—an inventory of conditions and a proposed hospital plan. [Montgomery], State Planning Board, 1945. 143 pp., maps, charts.

The employee's viewpoint on group hospitalization and medical care. By Adolph Held. (In Insurance series No. 65, American Management Association, New York, 1946, pp. 24–33.)

Health and welfare benefits of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union are explained in detail by the director in charge.

Notes on compulsory sickness insurance legislation in the States, 1939–44. By Adela Stucke. (In Public Health Reports, Federal Security Agency, Public Health Service, Washington, December 28, 1945, pp. 1551–1564; also reprinted.)

Analysis of legislative proposals introduced, over three-fourths of which provided for programs within existing State unemployment-compensation systems. So far, only Rhode Island and California have adopted plans after this pattern (see page 21 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review).

Negroes and Other Minority Groups

Controlling group prejudice. Edited by Gordon W. Allport. (In Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 244, Philadelphia, March 1946, pp. 1–182. $2.50 ($2, paper cover).)

Among the 22 articles presented, the following deal more directly with labor: Unions and Negro employment; Personnel practices and wartime changes; nondiscrimination in the Federal services; Housing in a democracy; National organizations in the field of race relations [including labor organizations].

Postwar employment and the Negro worker. By John A. Davis and Marjorie McKenzie Lawson. (In Common Ground, New York, spring 1946, pp. 3–15. Reprints of article are available at 10 cents each from Common Council for American Unity, 20 West 40th Street, New York.)

Reviews the growth in employment of Negroes during the war and analyzes their postwar job prospects in various industries and in Federal Government service.

Annual report of the New York State Commission against Discrimination, July 1, 1945, to February 28, 1946. New York, 1946. 24 pp.; processed.

The commission was appointed to administer the New York State law prohibiting discrimination, in the hiring of workers, because of race, creed, color, or national origin.

Race relations in Chicago; Report of the Mayor's Commission on Human Relations for 1945. Chicago, [1946]. 58 pp.

Included in the subjects covered are employment, housing, education, recreation, health and welfare, and law and order.

Occupations

Getting a job in advertising. By James Davis Woolf. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1946. 103 pp., illus. $2.

A successful advertising executive outlines in this book many types of advertising activities and the personal characteristics and education necessary for success in a chosen field. One chapter is devoted to women in advertising.

Establishing and operating a beauty shop. By Edith E. Gordon. *Establishing and operating a real estate and insurance brokerage business.* By Warren F. Hickernell. *Establishing and operating a hardware store.* Washington, U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1946. 135, 137, 204 pp., forms, illus. (Industrial (small business) series, Nos. 25, 26, 31.) 30, 30, 35 cents, respectively, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Careers in forestry. By U. S. Forest Service. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1945. 23 pp., illus. (Miscellaneous publication No. 249, revised.)

Careers in retail business ownership. By Robert Shosteck. Washington, B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1946. 346 pp., bibliography, charts. (B'nai B'rith vocational series No. 15.) $3 ($2, paper cover).

Intended as a guide in choosing a retail business, the volume contains descriptions of 35 different retail fields, comprising, it is stated, over 90 percent of the retail businesses in the United States. Personal and other requirements for success in retailing are discussed, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of self-employment.

Postwar opportunities offered by the office machine industry. Cleveland, National Office Machine Dealers Association, 1945. 8 pp.

A summary prepared to inform ex-servicemen of the training in this field that is made available in cooperation with the U. S. Veterans Administration.

Postwar outlook for physicians. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 21 pp. (Bull. No. 863; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, December 1945, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Prices, Price Control, and Rationing

Effectiveness of price control in the dairy industry. By Gideon Hadary. (In Journal of Business of the University of Chicago, April 1946, pp. 76–81; chart. $1.25.)

Labor Department examines consumers' prices of steel products. (In Iron Age, New York, April 25, 1946, pp. 118–145H; also reprinted.)

Report of a special study made by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, at the request of the Office of Price Administration, describing changes in prices of steel products from January 1939 to April 1942. Results of the study have just recently been made public.

Report of the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, [Canada], January 1, 1945, to December 31, 1945, including important developments up to March 1, 1946. Ottawa, 1946. 92 pp., charts.

Rationing of food grains in the United Provinces, [India], during World War II. By S. K. Rudra. Allahabad, Department of Economics and Statistics, U. P., 1946. 62 pp., forms.

Includes data, for Cawnpore, on prices of certain commodities in 1939 and 1943–46 and on the composition and cost of a balanced diet for an adult in 1939 and 1945.

Production and Productivity of Labor

Productivity and unit labor cost in selected manufacturing industries, 1939–45. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 18 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Productivity and unit labor cost in steam railroad transportation, 1935–45. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 4 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Industrial management in the Soviet Union. By Ernest R. Loew. (In Modern Management, New York, April 1946, pp. 12, 13, 27. 75 cents.)

Discussion of the introduction into Soviet factories of the "dispatching system" whereby a close check is kept on production according to plan.

Social Security

Annual report of the Federal Security Agency, for the fiscal year 1945. Washington, 1945. 527 pp.

Presents the reports of the several branches of the Agency, including the Social Security Board, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, Office of Education, and Public Health Service. The report of the Social Security Board contains recommendations for strengthening, extending, and unifying the Federal social-security program.

Social security yearbook, 1944. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, 1945. 169 pp., charts. 50 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Comprehensive analysis of the Federal social-security system and related programs for 1944, with basic statistics, under the following major heads: Social security and the national economy; old-age and survivors insurance; unemployment compensation; employment service; and public assistance. A chronology of significant developments is included.

Cost study for complete coverage program of old-age, survivors, and disability insurance. By D. C. Bronson. Washington, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Office of the Actuary, 1945. 96 pp., charts; processed. (Actuarial study No. 22.)

Improving old age and survivors insurance. By A. J. Altmeyer. (In Social Security Bulletin, Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board, Washington, March 1946, pp. 3–10. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The chairman of the Social Security Board recommends amending and extending the old-age and survivors insurance program to include the following: Coverage of all gainful workers including the self-employed; liberalization of benefits; permanent-total-disability insurance; benefits for vocational rehabilitation of disabled workers; additional protection to veterans; and strengthening the actuarial and fiscal basis of the system.

Labor looks at unemployment insurance: Report of the conference workshop of organized labor on employment security at University of Chicago, [August 1945]. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1946. 42 pp. $1.

Views the Federal-State unemployment insurance system, analyzes its principal weaknesses, and makes incisive recommendations for improvement.

Postwar public relief policies. By Edna Lonigan. New York and Washington, American Enterprise Association, 1945. 36 pp., bibliography. (National economic problems, No. 412.) 50 cents.

Vacations

Vacations with pay—policy and practice in IBEW local unions. Washington, International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, 1945. 48 pp.

Holiday making and the holiday trades. By Elizabeth Brunner. London, Oxford University Press, 1945. 65 pp., charts. 2s. 6d. net.

Holidays are discussed from the points of view of the worker and the tourist industry in Great Britain.

The staggering of holidays. Report of the Catering Wages Commission, Great Britain. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1945. 24 pp. 6d. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

The recommendations, submitted in accordance with provisions of the Catering Wages Act, 1943, stress the urgency of staggering summer vacations in order to regularize employment in the hotel and restaurant industry and to provide the public with more comfortable travel and accommodations.

Veterans' Affairs

GI's bonanza or booby-trap? By A. M. Sullivan. (In Dun's Review, New York, April 1946, pp. 20–24 et seq.; chart.)

Points to the opportunities and pitfalls in business and the need for resourcefulness if the veteran is to succeed after the war momentum has passed.

Guaranty or insurance of loans to veterans: Title III, Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, as amended by Public Law 268, 79th Congress. Washington, U. S. Veterans' Administration, 1946. 75 pp. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Gives text of the section—Title III—of the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944, as amended, pertaining to loans for the purchase or construction of homes, farms, and business property; regulations pertaining to guaranty or insurance of loans; and an outline of general administrative procedures and policies.

Houses for veterans—no cash down. (In Atlantic Monthly, Boston, June 1946, pp. 37–40. 40 cents.)

A warning against overburdening millions of veterans with the purchase of houses at inflated prices.

Setting up an apprenticeship program: A guide to employers in training veterans for the skilled trades. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Apprentice-Training Service, 1946. 30 pp., forms. Free.

Detailed explanation of the various provisions to include in an apprentice-training program and of the steps that a business establishment must take to obtain approval as a qualified "training institution" for veterans under the Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (GI bill of rights).

The veteran and higher education. A report to the President by the Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion. Washington, U. S. Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion, 1946. 49 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Examination of the problems involved in securing a rapid expansion of educational facilities to permit the accommodation of veterans and other students who will wish to go to college in the autumn of 1946.

The Connecticut plan: Community mobilization for the veteran. Hartford, Ætna Insurance Co., [1945?]. 8 pp.

One of a series of eight booklets describing the "Connecticut plan" for returning veterans and how it operates in individual localities and business establishments.

Rhode Island's educational and training opportunities for the veteran. Providence, Department of Education, 1945. 48 pp.

To organize, to operate your community advisory center for veterans and others. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Retraining and Reemployment Administration, [1946]. 40 pp., illus. Free.

You and demobilization from the armed forces and from industry—a complete guide for men and women. By Robert S. W. Pollard and Stephen Murray. London, Blandford Press, Ltd., [1945?]. 80 pp. 2s. 6d. net.

Explains British laws, regulations, and Government policy relating to demobilization, war pensions and gratuities, provisions for the disabled, reinstatement in civilian employment, education and training, and physical rehabilitation; also deals with decontrol of labor in essential employments.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Trends in urban wage rates, April to October 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 7 pp. (Bull. No. 860; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1946.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wage structure in the machinery industries, January 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 12 pp. (Bull. No. 861; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1946.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wage structure: Sheet metal, 1945; Foundries, 1945; Small arms, 1945. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 30, 63, 30 pp., respectively; mimeographed. (Wage structure series, Nos. 7, 8, 9.) Free.

Minimum salaries in major classifications (American Newspaper Guild contracts in effect March 15, 1946). New York, American Newspaper Guild, 1946. In 4 parts, variously paged; mimeographed.

Public health nursing salaries, 1945. By Dorothy E. Wiesner and Margaret M. Murphy. (In Public Health Nursing, New York, March 1946, pp. 125–128. 35 cents.)

Report of a survey by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, giving median salaries and ranges in salaries of nurses employed by public and private agencies in 1945, together with a tabular comparison of medians in January 1942 and March 1945.

Salary scheduling. Washington, National Education Association, Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division, 1946. 24 pp., bibliography. (Discussion pamphlet No. 8.) 15 cents.

Considers 12 of the questions that arise most frequently in the work of committees considering teachers' salaries, and gives a set of 7 principles, for the scheduling of salaries, proposed by the National Education Association's Committee on Salaries.

Diversity in North-South wage differentials and in wage rates within the South. By Richard A. Lester. (In Southern Economic Journal, Chapel Hill, N. C., January 1946, pp. 238–262; also reprinted.)

Wage policy, and the role of fact-finding boards. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1946. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 1835; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1946.) Free.

Labor's opportunity: The road to live and let live. By A. Grant McGregor. London, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd., 1945. 54 pp. 1s.

Proposes that wage adjustments be based on a prosperity-level index, not on a cost-of-living index. If prices tend to rise above the prosperity level established as a standard, rises in wage rates should be withheld until prices fall below this level, then raised. The author believes that thus consuming power would keep pace with productivity.

Problems of legal wage regulation [in the Soviet Union] in wartime. By A. E. Pasherstnik; translated by Andrew J. Steiger. (In American Review of the Soviet Union, New York, May 1946, pp. 61–75. 65 cents.)

Discusses wage revision for the promotion of production during the war, and explains the determination of wages under the Soviet economic system.

General Reports

Government and labor in early America. By Richard B. Morris. New York, Columbia University Press, 1946. 557 pp. $6.75.

The volume deals with the period preceding the rise of trade unionism. Labor is considered as a social unit. Functions of local as well as central government are discussed as bearing on the regulation of labor. Over one-third of the work is devoted to bound or indentured labor. The study is based on years of research, including an examination of the records, largely unpublished, of about 20,000 court cases.

Labor conditions in East Africa. By G. St. J. Orde Browne. London, Colonial Office, 1946. 94 pp., map. (Colonial No. 193.) 2s. net, His Majesty's Stationery Office, London.

Brazil: People and institutions. By T. Lynn Smith. Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University Press, 1946. 843 pp., bibliography, charts, maps, illus. $6.50.

Comprehensive description of Brazil, covering cultural diversity, population composition, immigration and internal migration of population, vital statistics, standard of living, land tenure, and social structure.

Budapest statistics. Budapest, Hungary, Municipal Statistical Bureau, 1945. 104 pp., maps, charts.

Includes statistics of the general population as of March 25, 1945, and of occupational distribution of the population in 1941; cost of living (indexes), 1927–November 1945; wages in the iron and machine industry, 1931–44; and other data.

Revue Française du Travail, 1re année, No. 1. Éditée par le Ministère du Travail et de la Sécurité Sociale. Paris, April 1946. 88 pp. Subscription price (except in France and French colonies) 450 francs per year and 240 francs for six months.

This first number of a new periodical contains special articles dealing, respectively, with the program of the Minister of Labor, the French social-security program (by the director-general of the social-security system), workers' organizations and the United Nations, and the Washington labor-management conference; sections on statistics and social and labor developments in France and other countries; and a bibliography of works published in France after August 1, 1945.

Postwar Britain. Edited by Sir James Marchant. London, Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1945. 240 pp., illus. 12s. 6d. net.

Eleven chapters are contributed by as many experts in the respective fields of health, food, housing, agriculture, chemistry, new materials, coal, iron and steel, railway and transport, electrification, and scientific research.

Report on an inquiry into conditions of labor in plantations in India. By D. V. Rege. Delhi, Manager of Publications, 1946. 234 pp., map, plans, charts.

The plantation industry is said to be the largest organized industry in India from the standpoint of employment. It was one of 38 industries selected for study by the Labor Investigation Committee appointed by the Indian Government in February 1944 to survey wages and earnings, employment, housing, and social conditions generally with a view to providing adequate materials on which to plan a policy of social security for labor.

New Zealand official yearbook, 1945. Wellington, Census and Statistics Department, 1945. 776 pp., map.

Separate sections are devoted to employment and unemployment, wage rates and hours of labor, industrial disputes, industrial accidents, social security, labor and allied legislation, trade unions, and prices.

Statistisk årbok for Norge, 1943–45. Oslo, Statistisk Sentralbyrå, 1946. 512 pp Kr. 3.50.

This is the first volume in the annual series since 1942. Tables which continue the earlier statistical series into 1945 include wholesale-price indexes, cost-of-living indexes, and statistics on employment, unemployment, employment placements, and wages in agriculture. Other tabulations cover labor disputes, 1932–39; net working hours in agriculture, 1939; membership of employer organizations, 1942–44, and of trade-union affiliates of the Norwegian Federation of Trade Unions, 1937–42; collective agreements in force at end of 1940; information from the housing census of 1938; various social-insurance benefits, 1931–43; retail prices of food and fuel; 1935–44; and consumers' cooperatives, 1942 and 1943. New series presented include hourly earnings by industry group and for adult male hand workers and entrepreneurs, by quarter, 1940–44.

Printed in Norwegian, with preface, table of contents, table heads, and certain other equivalents also in French.

Annual report for 1944 of Department of Labor of Palestine. [Jerusalem?], 1946. 23 pp. 175 mils.

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